The Nation.

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The Week.

THE Republicans are getting a great deal of comfort out of the President's letter to Congressman Catchings and Mr. Wilson's speech. Battered and breathless as they are under the blows they and their tariff have already received, they take great delight in pointing out the purpose of the insatiate Democrats to hit them again. They tell the Trusts and tricksters who managed to keep their tariff favors by grace of Gorman & Co., that there is no "finality" about the business, and no certainty at all that the swag will not be taken away from them next winter. This is really all there is to their cry that the country is to have no "peace." Neither the President nor Mr. Wilson proposes any general overhauling of the tariff. Mr. Cleveland urges only "such modifications as will more nearly meet Democratic hopes." Mr. Wilson foreshadows "not a general engagement, . . . but a steady and resistless pressure that will take one after another of the strongholds of privilege." There is nothing in that to alarm the country, or any person or business that deserves "peace." Do the Republicans want the Sugar Trust let alone? Do they think the people would be distracted and quit manufacturing and buying and selling if legislation were set on foot at Washington next winter to force that Trust to take its hands out of the Treasury? No one will believe that who observes with what popular enthusiasm the Democratic congressional conventions all over the country are taking up that issue. The President's letter has evidently given them, what they did not have before, a platform to stand on in this fall's elections.

Everybody must see that there will be much greater ease and propriety in piecemeal tariff amendments next winter than ever before. The old system was one of a grand log-rolling "combine." This is what the Republicans have meant by their grave talk about interfering with the "system." Any particular duty might be an outrage and a fraud, but if it was a part of the "system," you must not touch it. In other words, if you took away one conspirator's booty, he would make a great row and insist on everybody else giving up his plunder too. But now the old "combine" has been hopelessly broken, the sugar bounty can no more lock arms with wool protected by 90 per cent. duties and the Steel-Rail Trust, and say, "Touch one of us and the whole partnership goes to pieces." The partnership *has* gone to pieces. With its own plunder taken away, it will not be in a condition to make an effective fight in behalf of some other man's plunder. There is, in fact, no reason why the excrescences of the new tariff should not be cut away one after another, with the general applause of the country, and without any of that terrible disturbance which the Republican organs now foresee. The only real disturbance is in the bosoms of the men who have bought their tariff favors as of yore, and who will not, we should think, feel any too grateful to the alarmed newspapers which are pointing them out as a shining mark for the tariff-reformer's aim.

In insisting upon free raw materials as of the essence of tariff reform, President Cleveland stands not only for party honesty but for hard business sense. We are already beginning to see that free wool is going to do for woollen manufactures in this country what free raw silk has done for the silk manufacture and free hides for the boot and shoe industry. The woollen manufacturers are preparing for a better business than they have known in years, and are already setting up machinery for weaving grades of cloth which never before could be made in this country on account of the prohibitory duties on the wool necessary to make them. At the same time, the price of American wool is advancing—it has gone up from 10 to 30 per cent. in some lines within the past sixty days. This is the simple business fact which is too much for the arithmetic of those who dwell in the shadow of McKinley and Tom Reed. The latter's Portland organ does not deny that the price of American wool is advancing, but asks how that fact can be reconciled with the law of demand and supply. Bless the innocent hearts of these theorists, don't they know that American wool has not been treated all these years as a part of the "supply" at all? It has been regarded as a sort of national fetish, to be baled up tenderly, and spoken of only with a patriotic quaver in the voice, and kept from defiling contact with foreign wool; but as a component part of a manufactured product it has not been considered at all. But at last the woollen manufacturers have a tariff which is actually going to enable them to make woollen goods, and the demand for raw material at once springs up and the price of wool advances all over the world. The Ohio wool-growers are likely to put uglier questions than ever to McKinley this fall. It will take all the resources of his giant intellect to explain to them how it is that, while his increased duties knocked down the price of wool, free wool instantly means money in their pockets.

Wanamaker leaves the Philadelphia public in no doubt as to his conviction that a tariff is a tax, and that the removal of duties lowers the prices of goods. For a number of days past he has been advertising the great "bargains" which he is enabled to offer by reason of the new law. On Tuesday, for example, he made such announcements as the following:

> "Everything that free-wool and tariff influences can do to put prices on a lower level has been much more than discounted in the handsome new dress stuffs that are crowding to the counters every day. This fifty-inch serge, for instance—black and navy blue, worth 50 cents by any measure of dress-goods value, never before heard of at less—the price is 37½ cents.
>
> "This all-wool camel's-hair serge—navy blue, black, brown, modes—only a little while ago we could barely meet the demand at 50 cents; the price is 25 cents."

The ex-postmaster-general's advertisements have attracted the attention of his former chief's home organ, and provoked an outburst of wrath. Mr. Harrison's spokesman, the editor of the Indianapolis *Journal*, even goes so far as to say:

> "In trying to make the public believe that these and other reductions named in the advertisements are due to the new tariff, Mr. Wanamaker, or his advertising agent, is guilty of disingenuousness amounting almost to lying."

But there is no occasion for anger. Even if the new tariff does make things cheaper, is it not true that "a cheap coat means a cheap man under the coat," and will not the American people rise in a body at the first opportunity against any party which thus threatens to cheapen humanity?

The Treasury closed its August accounts with a balance of more than $8,000,000 on the right side for the month. Thus far in the fiscal year the receipts are $17,000,000 greater than a twelvemonth ago, and the expenditures $2,000,000 less. Nearly all the improvement has come from the swollen internal revenue. That will now slacken, but the customs receipts will, in their turn, bound upward, and the chances are that the Treasury will be able permanently to chase the wolf well down Pennsylvania Avenue. We think that the Treasury and the country during the past year and a half have got all the sweet uses out of adversity that they are likely to, and will not be hurt at all now by a reasonable amount of prosperity. The signs are now most flattering for a good fall business.

The National Labor Commission closed its sessions at Chicago on August 30, after hearing more than a hundred witnesses,

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although it will give anybody else who desires a hearing an opportunity to appear before it in Washington later. It can only make recommendations, and it is given out that it will most likely advise the creation of State boards of arbitration to settle differences between employers and employed. Apropos of this, it is interesting to note that Massachusetts has such a board, and that neither was it able to avert the present strikes in New Bedford and Fall River, nor does it seem capable of doing anything to hasten the end of the controversy, which it is disposed to leave to the operation of natural laws.

It is evident that those who blame Mr. Pullman on account of the recent strike and the present condition of things are moved by their feelings, and not by their reasoning powers. That the Pullman Company was building cars at less than cost when the strike took place is not denied. It is admitted, too, that the strike was ordered not on account of any present reduction of wages, but on account of a refusal to advance wages to the rate of last year, although the company could not get back a new dollar for an old one in its present work. It is said that the company had a large reserve fund and a large income derived from sleeping-car service all over the country. If that is true, it might be an argument for raising the wages of the Pullman car porters and conductors. Senator Sherman indicated that in his opinion that was the right way to get rid of the surplus. No argument for raising wages in a non-paying business can be derived from the fact that some other branch of business carried on by the same company makes a profit. Mr. Pullman has no right to make gratuities of the money of his shareholders, who are largely widows, orphans, school-teachers, and other persons of slender means. These people are not seen in any of the present dissensions, and it is accordingly assumed that Mr. Pullman ought to distribute their money in a free-and-easy way, whereas a moment's reflection will show that he is a trustee and that he has no right to take an unbusinesslike step, and that in the nature of things he must be the judge of what is businesslike and what is not. The truth is, that the feeling against Mr. Pullman is mostly personal. He carries his head too high. He does not see some people even when they are directly in his way. A man may bestow all his goods to feed the poor, yet if he does not appear to take a personal interest in them they will be very likely to hate him, and will construe all doubtful points to his disadvantage.

Despite the opposition of the congressional campaign committees of both parties, Republicans and Democrats in various districts continue to "fuse" with the Populists. The Republicans go into such combinations in the South, and the Democrats in the West. In the Ninth Texas District a fusion has already been arranged, and in Alabama the Republicans and Kolbites will vote together again for Congressmen in November, as they did for State officers early last month. In North Carolina the Republicans on Thursday decided, nearly six to one, for fusion, or "coöperation," as it is there called, with the Populists on the State ticket. The Democrats appear to be most thoroughly demoralized in Iowa, where they join with the Populists in several districts, and in one support Weaver, who was the Populist nominee for President in 1892. Happily there are signs that these combinations will generally be as great failures as the Kolb-Republican alliance in Alabama a few weeks ago. In most cases self-respecting Republicans and Democrats will content themselves with refusing to support the fusion candidate, but the Democrats in the district where Weaver is running are setting a good example by circulating and signing a paper announcing their open opposition, on the ground that Weaver is not a Democrat, and that his platform is directly opposed to Democratic principles. In view of the probability that the next House of Representatives will be close, it would be a terrible misfortune if the Populists should carry enough districts to hold the balance of power; and both Republicans and Democrats throughout the country should do everything in their power to encourage the decent members of their parties in standing out against "combines" wherever they are attempted.

In several States the duty of electing a United States Senator next winter has led to peculiar developments. In Pennsylvania a fight is made against Cameron, and candidates for the Legislature are asked to pledge themselves against his return to Washington. Camden is the offensive personality in West Virginia, and the protest against his re-election has been so strong that his defeat is said to be already assured. No election of Senator is to be had in Maryland, yet Gorman has made himself so obnoxious to the decent elements of his party in that State that they are combining against his creatures in every way possible. If he were up for re-election, it is clear that distrust and hatred of him would prove a rallying-cry in the legislative canvass. In New Jersey the movement is not so pronounced, yet the feeling that the representation of the State should no longer be vested in the person of Senator McPherson is strong and widespread among respectable Democrats. McPherson is not openly a candidate, nor is Sewell on the Republican side. Yet the latter is as much disliked and dreaded by the better Republicans as McPherson is by the Democrats, and the result is a general desire in both parties to pledge their candidates for the Legislature against "unfit nominees for the United States Senate"—McPherson and Sewell being the men tacitly aimed at.

The election in Arkansas on Monday was the first in which a certificate of the payment of a poll-tax was made a prerequisite to voting. "In consequence," says a despatch from Little Rock, "the negro was practically eliminated from the contest." But one trial of the system does not show how it will work always. In the three-cornered controversy this year the success of the Democrats was certain, and there was no inducement for either Republicans or Populists to pay the taxes of men who did not feel interest enough in the election to pay their dues themselves. It may be different when the time comes, as it doubtless will, that the whites of the State are pretty evenly divided. If a Mahone ever turns up in Arkansas with a campaign fund of $25,000 or $50,000, the negro vote will not be so thoroughly eliminated as it was on Monday. It may even happen, as it did in Virginia, that the poll-taxes of the blacks are more generally paid than those of the whites, and the Arkansas Democrats may finally feel constrained, as did those of Virginia after the rise of the Readjuster party, to repeal the tax law for the sake of their party.

Mr. Levi P. Morton's letter addressed to the Republicans of New York is a very straightforward composition. It means just what it says, namely, that if he is nominated for the office of Governor he will accept the nomination, and if elected he will serve. If he is not nominated he will give his cheerful support to anybody who is nominated. That is certainly a safe position, and it does not involve any humiliation if some other candidate is nominated. Mr. Morton is not a great man and he does not pretend to be. He is a safe man, and he has a certain amount of strength in his own party which proceeds from the feeling that he was unjustly treated at the Minneapolis convention two years ago. Of course everybody is asking whether Platt is for Morton or for Fassett. Everybody knows that he is not for Choate, because he cannot control Choate. Probably he will be for Morton if, as the time for the convention approaches, Morton seems to have a preponderance of strength, or he will be for Fassett under like conditions.

Secretary Morton of the Agricultural Department remains a surprise to the

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professional politicians. Having advocated retrenchment during the canvass, he has been trying to enforce it ever since he entered the cabinet. The surest way of saving money which he saw was by shutting down on the absurd system of distributing seeds of the most common varieties of plants by the wholesale. The law provides for sending out only such as are "rare and uncommon to the country, or such as can be made more profitable by frequent changes from one part of our country to another"; and its obvious intent was to help the work of experiment in raising plants where they were not indigenous. Instead of this there has grown up a huge warehouse for the free distribution of ordinary seeds, which are sent by Congressmen "where they will do the most good" in making agricultural constituents friendly to them. Last year this branch of the department cost $140,000. This year Mr. Morton informed Congress that he could send out all the seeds which the law authorizes for $30,000. Congressmen were filled with indignation at this proposition to save more than $100,000, and, in their resentment, insisted upon marking up the appropriation higher than ever before, to $160,000. But the secretary would not give up. The act appropriated this sum "for the purchase, propagation, and distribution, *as required by law*, of valuable seeds, bulbs, trees, shrubs, vines, cuttings, and plants." Mr. Morton asked the attorney-general what this italicized clause means, and Mr. Olney replies that it undoubtedly refers to the earlier restriction of such purchases to "rare and uncommon seeds." So the secretary of agriculture at last wins his fight for economy.

The bulletin published by the Census Office, now in charge of Mr. C. D. Wright, in relation to "farm and home-owners" and mortgage indebtedness in this country comes appropriately on the heels of the same Mr. Wright's article in the *Yale Review* showing the practical worthlessness of all such statistics. No one ought to scan these figures without at the same time having in his hand the great bulletin of Superintendent Porter, issued in 1891, in which he explained his method of operation. In brief, this was to collect neighborhood gossip and opinions of the oldest inhabitants as to how much people owed and what rate of interest they were paying. Doing this for 102 selected counties and averaging up the results for the whole country was Porter's idea of the way to make a census. He admitted that the probable error might be as high as 15 to 20 per cent., but maintained that, even so, his figures would be of incalculable value. The results given out in that year were easily shown to be simply grotesque, and while as much cannot confidently be said of the complete tabulations now gathered and summed up, it may be confidently said that they are to be accepted only with the greatest caution, and after independent testing. To set about lashing them into the support of party and theory, as the *Tribune* hastens to do, is to darken counsel by figures without knowledge.

The Massachusetts Bureau of Labor Statistics has issued a report on the condition of the unemployed in that State based upon a thorough investigation during the past year. The results are rather disappointing. Interesting figures are presented giving the proportion of the unemployed by months during 1893, which show that more than 22 per cent. of those at work in the spring were without employment in September, when the worst effects of the depression were felt. The Citizens' Relief Committee in Boston disbursed $136,568 among this class last winter, the male applicants numbering 7,460, who had 22,284 others dependent upon them; and it is rather surprising to find that most of them were in the prime of life (only nineteen past seventy years of age), and had lived in the city many years. Despite the thousands in the cities who complain that they can get no work, the demand for agricultural labor has been in excess of the supply, and farmers have to employ intelligence offices to secure men at such good wages as $20 to $30 a month with board. Several methods of relieving the unemployed are discussed in the report, but little seems to be expected from the adoption of any of them. As the Massachusetts Bureau of Labor Statistics has always been the most intelligent in the country, it would appear reasonable to expect a contribution of positive value to the discussion of this problem, but the impression left by a reading of the report is that most of the people who are out of work are so shiftless and worthless that not much can be done for them.

The particulars of the debate upon the "Miners' Eight-Hours Bill," which was recently defeated in the British House of Commons, show the enormous practical difficulties to be surmounted before any such measure can be successful. The advocates of the bill insisted that it should be made of universal application in coal-mining, upon the ground that if any exceptions were made, it would be impossible to enforce it. But the opponents of the bill contended that the conditions of mining were so different in different places, that the attempt to apply a uniform rule would result in the greatest inequality. In order to prevent the possibility of evading the prohibitions of the bill, it was so drawn as not to limit the work to forty-eight hours a week, or an average of eight hours a day, but to forbid working more than eight out of any twenty-four hours. Furthermore, the period of work was reckoned from the moment when the miner began his descent into the mine to the moment when he completed his ascent out of it, or from "bank to bank," in miners' parlance. It was shown that in many old mines the enforcing of this restriction would limit the time actually spent at the face of the seam to five hours or even less; under which conditions such mines could not be worked at all. The coal-miners of Durham and Northumberland took a vote among themselves upon the act, with the result that four-fifths of them were found to be opposed to it. Against such an opposition as this no government could enforce the proposed act except under martial law. Coal-miners are a rugged and stubborn class, and they have never been slow in fighting vigorously for what they have considered to be their rights. If the police should be called in to prevent them from earning their customary wages by working their customary time —which, by the way, averages only about 7½ hours at the face of the seam —a contest would take place that would put the theories of socialism to a very severe test.

The French socialists have always found the peasant proprietors deaf to their wisest charming. In the cities, especially the manufacturing cities, it has been comparatively easy to get the landless and the houseless to agree to turning over all the property of other people to the state for common use; but the thick-headed agriculturist, with his feet on his own soil and his own roof over him, has not been able to see it in that light. His stubbornness on this point has at last forced a complete change in the socialistic plan of campaign so far as the country districts are concerned. In their future appeals to the peasant electorate the socialist orators are to pose as the most ardent defenders of the right of private property. Their fine collectivist theories are to be dropped for the sake of collecting a few votes. Such, at least, is the new programme, according to their eloquent leader, M. Jaurès. He says that there is to be an especial effort to win over the farming population to the socialist party, and that the burden of complaint will be, not that private property is robbery, but that taxes and trade combinations are ruining the farmer. It is not the peasant's labor which is spoliated like the artisan's, but the products of it, and good prices and low taxes will never come until the socialists obtain control of all the capital and manufacturing plants of the cities. The French farmers will scarcely be taken in by this.

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A NEW ERA IN AMERICAN MANUFACTURING.

THE old lady who crossed the equator with a nervous clutch on the ship's rail, to brace herself against the expected jar, was in a mental attitude not unlike that of some American manufacturers as the day drew near when the new tariff was to go into effect. They had been so often told that that day would mean ruin to them that they half expected to be ruined on August 28, no matter how prosperous the sea through which they had been sailing on August 27. But they have now got over the imaginary line without a bump, and it is not strange that they are beginning to think that all the evils which lie beyond may also prove imaginary.

Yet the transition is, after all, a momentous one, and it is not too much to say that many branches of manufacture in this country are entering upon a new era. The change in mental attitude alone is immense, and will be even more marked and telling as the days and months go by and demonstrate that goods can be made in this country without the gracious and supernatural intervention of McKinley. Of course, it will take time to break up among certain manufacturers the habit of lifting up their eyes unto Washington, whence cometh their help. But four years will accomplish wonders in this direction, and the leading organ of protection now reluctantly admits that no increase in duties can be had before 1898. In that period men will buy and sell and get gain. The present outlook is that they will do it on a large scale; but if they are able to do it on a small scale or on any scale at all, it must work a revolution in their inherited idea of the dependence of business prosperity upon high customs duties.

This revolution is already started, and is manifesting itself in striking ways. One way is the astonishing bursts of frankness on the part of manufacturers and trade journals. Truths which revenue reformers have been whispering in a corner, erstwhile protectionists are now proclaiming from the housetops. Here is a plain-spoken writer in the *Wool and Cotton Reporter* who tells the woollen manufacturers some homely truths to which reformers have in vain tried to get them to listen. He affirms that, though it is true that there have been a great many failures among woollen manufacturers during the past ten years, "nine-tenths of these failures would have occurred had the tariff been double what it was or is." The trouble is in the underling manufacturers themselves, he maintains, and not in their tariff stars. They are slack and behind the times in their business methods and mill equipment, and "want the laws of the country made so that they can make the greatest possible amount of money in the shortest possible time, and without any risk." This is the class of manufacturers who are "continually complaining and crying for more protection." They are the incompetent and lazy, who would naturally be driven to the wall in any business, to the great relief and profit of the competent and energetic; and yet they "cannot be forced out of the business as long as the Government protects them as it has done in the past."

Another manufacturer, taking up the question of ability to meet foreign competition under the new tariff, declares that "the old rattle-trap mills," filled with obsolete and worn-out machinery, cannot meet foreign competition or domestic either. On the other hand, mills "built to be operated," and equipped especially for some special lines of goods, under trained and scientific oversight, are on a paying basis and will continue there, no matter what the tariff rates. In line with this is the assertion of Rhode Island experts that some manufacturers in that State are able "to compete with Englishmen on their own terms." And a trade report on the New York woollen-goods market for the last week in August says that the buyers—of whom the market is "full"—are acting on the fact that "the supply for the spring season is to be drawn from domestic sources." This is due to the improved processes of manufacture and to a reduced cost of production, brought about by the hard times, and more than sufficient to overcome any tariff changes which have been made.

All this is a refreshing change from the doleful plaints of the alarmed manufacturers which we have heard in such a depressing chorus all these years. Equally refreshing is the good advice which trade journals are giving to the manufacturers within their special provinces. They are at last beginning to appeal to American inventiveness and pluck as the qualities which are going to enable us to meet our foreign enemies at the gates. The need of establishing technical schools is also wisely insisted upon, and the necessity of putting ourselves on a level with foreigners in the application of science to industry. Here has been the real superiority of the foreign manufacturer. An American manufacturer in straits has rushed madly off to Washington to get his duties doubled; the German has put a dozen more skilled chemists and Chemnitz graduates on his pay-roll, despatched polyglot drummers to all parts of the world to get orders, and thus been able to snap his fingers at our tariff.

That is the kind of thing that the American manufacturer will now have to do. He will have to conduct his business without the expense of a branch office in the ways and means committee-room. Instead of mortgaging his mill to defeat a tariff-reform Congressman, he will mortgage it, if necessary, to buy the newest machinery and latest patented devices and to employ superintendents who know their business. With free raw material he will not need to ask favors of anybody, or dread competition of any sort except the competition of superior skill. If the Yankee cannot hold his own in that particular, then all his boasting is vain. There is no doubt that he can, or that Mr. Gladstone is right in predicting the transference to this country of the industrial supremacy of the world, when once American inventiveness and practical skill and business talent are given a fair field and no favors.

OUR FOREIGN COPYRIGHT RELATIONS.

THE recent proceedings in the German Parliament with a view to the abrogation of the copyright convention between that country and the United States again call public attention to the anomalous position occupied by our country in regard to literary property. It will be remembered that the Revised Statutes were amended by an act passed March 3, 1891, to go into effect July 1 of the same year, so as to grant a limited legal protection in the United States to the literary and artistic property of foreigners under certain alternative conditions. These conditions, set out in section 13 of the act, are to the effect that whatever advantages the new act insures shall apply to subjects of a foreign state only (*a*) when such nation permits to citizens of the United States the benefits of copyright on substantially the same basis as to its own citizens; or (*b*) "when such foreign state or nation is a party to an international agreement which provides for reciprocity in the grant of copyright, by the terms of which agreement the United States of America may at its pleasure become a party to such agreement."

It is difficult to construe this last clause. Evidently the framers of it had in mind the International Copyright Union and the inclusion of the United States therein. This union is founded on an international agreement for reciprocity of copyright, and, according to article 18 of that agreement, any country which within its own limits assures legal protection to the rights which are the objects of the convention, may be admitted to the union upon request; such accession implying adhesion to all the articles and admission to all the advantages of the treaty. But the second article of the convention stipulates that "the authors of any one country, or their assigns, enjoy for their works in all the other countries of the union, *whether such works are or are not published in one of these countries*, the rights which the respective laws now accord, or may in the future accord, to natives." It is clear, therefore, that the United States cannot subscribe

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to the Berne treaty or become a party to the International Copyright Union so long as our law makes not only publication, but actual manufacture, within the United States, a condition to obtaining copyright; or that such adhesion to the treaty would have to be construed as nullifying the American-manufacture clause in the copyright act, so far as the authors of the countries now parties, or hereafter to become parties, to that treaty are concerned.

Just what was intended, therefore, by the insertion in section 13 of the copyright act of the words "at its pleasure," it is difficult to conceive, but apparently they were included upon a notion that the United States should be admitted to the Berne treaty upon the basis of the act of March 3, 1891; and for this view we have the authority of the Department of State in a letter addressed to the Swiss minister by Mr. William F. Wharton, acting secretary, who says:

> "It seems necessary to interpret them as signifying that the [international] agreement must admit of the adhesion of this government on the basis of the law in which they are found. In other words, the agreement can be said to permit the United States to become a party 'at its pleasure' only when such agreement admits of the adhesion of the United States, and extends to it the benefits of the conventional guarantees in return for the privileges which the present law affords."

That is to presuppose that the United States would be admitted into the international agreement to profit by the advantages offered by it, without being required to be bound by the stipulations binding upon the several other governments which are parties to the convention—an idea which proved futile.

The foreign governments interested contended, on the other hand, that, as the United States had been invited to join the Berne convention, and could at any time do so by signifying a desire to accept the articles of international agreement, the second condition expressed in article 13 of our copyright act was virtually complied with so far as the states within the International Copyright Union were concerned, and applications were made for the extension of the benefits of the act of March 3, 1891, upon this basis. But this interpretation was denied by the Department of State, whereupon France, Belgium, Great Britain, and Switzerland renewed application on the ground that the alternative stipulation contained in article 13 was fulfilled, because their respective laws already afforded to natives of the United States copyright upon substantially the same basis as to their own citizens. The Department of State having certified to the truth of this claim, after an examination of the copyright legislation of each country, President Harrison thereupon issued the first copyright proclamation, extending the application of the copyright law to the citizens of the above-named countries, including the British possessions, under date of July 1, 1891, the very day on which the copyright act went into effect. Upon similar grounds, a proclamation was published, also by President Harrison, in behalf of Italy, on October 31, 1892; and President Cleveland, by proclamations of May 8 and July 20, 1893, extended copyright protection to the citizens of Denmark and Portugal respectively. Negotiations were also entered into with Spain, but up to this time have not resulted in the promulgation of a proclamation.

Germany also had contended for a copyright proclamation on the ground of membership in the International Copyright Union, but this reason was declared insufficient. Neither was the alternative condition of section 13 of the copyright act satisfied; for while the laws in force in the German empire extend the protection of copyright to such works by foreigners as are issued by publishers in Germany, the statutes are declared applicable to the literary and artistic works of natives, whether published in Germany or elsewhere. Hence it was necessary to formulate a copyright treaty, which was signed at Washington, on January 15, and ratified on April 15, to go into effect on May 6, 1892—the first, and thus far the only, copyright treaty entered into by the United States. Article 1 of this convention provides that citizens of the United States shall enjoy in the German empire the protection of copyright as regards works of literature and art, and security against the illegal reproduction of photographs, on the same basis as such protection is accorded to subjects of the empire; while article 2 stipulates that in return the citizens of Germany shall be admitted to the benefits of the act of March 3, 1891. According to article 3, the treaty may be terminated at the end of three months after the day upon which either party thereto gives notice of withdrawal.

This treaty met with much opposition in Germany at the time of its proposal, on the ground that, under a show of reciprocity, the United States demanded a whole in exchange for a part. This complaint was not without foundation. The usual course has been to stipulate that the privileges guaranteed by a copyright convention shall not exceed in one country the rights secured by the laws of the other country to its own citizens. The benefits of our copyright act, however, were not offered in exchange for equivalent privileges to be secured to citizens of the United States under the laws of the German empire; but, upon the ground that under our laws foreigners could obtain copyright upon substantially the same basis as our own authors, we demanded that the same rights and privileges as were secured to the natives of Germany by its laws should be extended to our citizens. This was not an offer of equal exchange. The United States term of copyright, forty-two years, is one of the shortest in modern legislation, and the rights secured are saddled with such onerous burdens as simultaneous publication and remanufacture in the United States, while the statutes are clumsily framed and contradictory, and upon points of practical importance there is uncertainty, and consequent possibility of loss. The German statutes, on the other hand, are admirably drafted, the rights guaranteed are well defined and easily defended from trespass, and the term of protection extends thirty years beyond the life of the author, while no formalities are required except registration. It looked to Germans, therefore, not unreasonably, as if the United States had deliberately schemed to secure every possible advantage with the least return, and the demand of a double copyright-fee from foreigners seemed to accentuate our ungenerous spirit. The two years in which the treaty has been in force have served only to justify these objections, and to demonstrate that the sole advantage secured to Germans is protection to art works, maps, and musical publications, while it remains practically impossible to obtain protection for books, and they, together with whatever is published in German periodicals, are still free plunder for American literary pirates, who have not been exterminated.

THE NEW ENGLISH TAXES.

Now that the income tax has actually been imposed upon us, it may afford those who will be especially inconvenienced by it a modicum of consolation to contrast their condition with that of the corresponding social class in England. This class has been afflicted with an income tax since 1842, and, although the hope was formerly extended to it by successive chancellors of the exchequer that the revenues of the Government might increase so as to admit of the discontinuance of this tax, the rise of socialism has now extinguished this hope. Not only has the prospect of relief been cut off, but the present burdens have been materially increased by the revenue act which has lately gone into effect. In addition to the income tax, what are known as "death duties," or taxes levied upon accumulated property whenever there is a change of title by will or intestacy, are henceforth to be charged not only upon personalty but also upon real estate. These duties are progressive, and upon large estates so high as to indicate the adoption of a distinctly hostile policy against the great families of the English landed aristocracy. The taxes are therefore not so much a fiscal as a political measure, and it is from that point of view that we propose to look at them.

It is true that some claim has been made that "symmetry" required that

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as taxes were levied upon the personal property of a decedent, his real property should also be mulcted. This argument ignores the fact that real property is subject to local taxation, or "rates," in England, from which personalty is exempt. It also ignores the principle of the distribution of the incidence of taxation. No economist will deny that if mortgages are effectively taxed, the rate of interest will be raised to borrowers upon the security of real estate, and that the value of real estate will experience a corresponding decline. It is still more evident that a direct tax upon real estate causes a diminution of its value. It does not increase productiveness, while it subtracts from income. The possessor of real estate upon which a tax is imposed which he did not anticipate when he came into possession, inevitably suffers an impairment of his revenue. But the steady decline in the price of wheat and other agricultural products has notoriously diminished the rent-rolls of the great families of England to an extent which has seriously embarrassed many of them, and this added burden will undoubtedly give the *coup de grâce* to not a few.

It is common for theorists upon taxation to speak of the acquisition of property by descent or will as something like a windfall, part of which, as in the case of treasure-trove, may be seized by the tax-gatherers. It is generally the case, as a matter of fact, that the death of an ordinary man is not a pecuniary blessing to his family, but a serious disaster; while in the case of families of wealth, although the title may be in a single individual, the property is regarded as a family possession. The death of the nominal owner, therefore, can seldom improve the circumstances of those for whom he provided; and it is beyond question that the Government, in exacting a tax upon the inheritance of the widow and orphans upon the death of the husband and father, generally deprives them of a part of that income of which they have previously enjoyed the possession though not the title.

The family ownership of property is peculiarly an institution of the English aristocracy. The great estates are all "settled" in such a way that the tenant in possession, after he has satisfied the charges upon the property for the benefit of the female members of the family and its younger sons, has but a moderate income left. The new law, however, allows no exemption on this account. There may be half-a-dozen changes of title in a generation, and should such an event occur—and it is far from unprecedented—the entire income of a large estate for that period would be confiscated by the Government. Taxation was carried to this extreme under the later Roman Empire, but it is doubtful if anything like it has been seen under any civilized government. The Duke of Devonshire, in a speech full of dignified pathos, not long since explained to his tenants and neighbors at Buxton that it would be impossible for his family henceforth to contribute as they had done to public improvements. With an honorable pride he declared that neither his predecessors nor himself had looked upon the revenues of their estates as a means of exclusive, or personal, or selfish gratification. He made it no boast, and claimed for it no merit, that he and they had not only regarded it a duty, but had found it a pleasure, to devote a large, and in some cases the largest, portion of this revenue to objects in which the tenants and the general public had an interest. But as the exactions of the Government upon his death would amount to from six to ten, possibly to twelve, years' net income from the property, it required no calculation to see that its maintenance upon the former principles ceased to be possible.

This result is admitted to be probable by all, although many upholders of the new taxes regard it as lamentable. Lord Farrer, in a very earnest, although very feeble, defence of the budget, deplores the divorce from the popular party of the great houses who for more than a century "have loved the people well." He adds:

> "Nor can any one travel through this beautiful England of ours without feeling how much of its beauty, of its charm, of all its inherited 'wealth of hall and bower,' of park and moor and field and forest, traversed by pleasant paths and open to enjoyment by the whole community, is due to the proper pride, the wealth, the taste, and the liberality of successive generations of noblemen and squires who have spent in adorning the country the means and efforts which in other countries have been devoted to seaside villas or to urban palaces. It will be an evil time for town-dwellers in England when Yorkshire and Sussex, Cumberland and Devonshire, are cut up into ten-acre villas or three-acre allotments."

Lord Farrer endeavors to console himself for the coming downfall of the great families by the reflection that rich men will buy and maintain the country-seats which these families will be compelled to relinquish. Doubtless this will be so; but the sentiment of loyalty cannot survive the change. The lands once owned by the nobility of France are all occupied and their castles tenanted; but a rich *bourgeoisie* is not an aristocracy.

RAILWAY STATISTICS.

THE report of the statistics of railways for the year ending June 30, 1893, issued by the Interstate Commerce Commission, comes with a reasonable degree of promptness considering the delays and difficulties encountered by the statistician in getting uniform and complete reports from our rail carriers. 'Poor's Manual' for the year 1893 has also been recently issued. The manual and the supplement to the *Financial Chronicle* occupy fields of their own which the federal volume does not cover; nevertheless, the interstate figures are better for broad generalizations and for comparisons of States and of railways by groups: it is these general statements which are now under discussion.

The first table printed by the commission is very suggestive. Of course the need of railways is measured by the character and quantity of the traffic furnished, but, in estimating on this need, the proportion of miles to area and to population is also an important factor. We select representative States to show the varying conditions:

	Number of miles of line per 100 square miles of territory.	Number of miles of line per 10,000 inhabitants		Number of miles of line per 100 square miles of territory.	Number of miles of line per 10,000 inhabitants
Mass.	26.4	8.9	Nebr'ska	7.2	49.2
New York	16.8	12.6	Kansas	10.8	58.7
Penn.	20.6	16.6	Wash't'n	4.1	74.7
Ohio.	20.5	21.5	Califor'a	3.0	37.2
Illinois.	18.6	25.6	Texas	3.5	38.7
Minnesota.	7.4	43.8	Alabama	7.1	22.8
Iowa.	15.3	41.8	Georgia.	8.3	25.3

The differences in the length of railroad to population are interesting. The Eastern States are apparently satisfied with a mileage but a fourth or a fifth of the number of miles built in our newer States in proportion to the number of people. Washington and Kansas are pre-eminent for this seeming overplus of railroad lines, though the former State does not rely exclusively upon agriculture. The farming States, again, are to be judged in part by the character of the crops—corn, for instance, justifying more miles of railway than cotton. Yet when allowance is made, the high figures for some of the Western States indicate a large railway mileage built for strategic purposes and in advance of the needs of the people. In time, of course, the ratio may become as low as at the East, yet the population of Kansas and Nebraska must double without any addition to the railway lines before an approach to that condition would be made. In part this difference is equalized by the facilities afforded and the cost of the railways of the two sections, the capitalization per mile at the East being double. The column of miles according to area being in inverse proportion—showing much less mileage at the West—reveals that the Western States are still sparsely populated, and have room for the people which the overbuilding of railways presupposes will come in the future.

Out of 1,890 railways in the United States, but 752 are independent companies—an increase of 40 over 1892. This brief statement shows how rapidly consolidation into systems is going on. Some good observers, indeed, believe that the problem of insufficient net earnings can be solved in no other way. A

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fact looking in the same direction is that 42 companies have over 1,000 miles each, those 42 controlling 56 per cent. of all our railway mileage.

Though Congress in 1893 passed a law making automatic couplers and train-brakes obligatory after 1898, progress in equipping cars is slow, only 216,923 freight-cars out of a total of 1,013,307 being fitted with such couplers.

The total number of men employed in railway service on June 30, 1893, was 873,602. The annual increase in population is about 2.50 per cent.; the rate of increase in railway employment during the year was 6 per cent., while, if we count in the families, the percentage would be much larger. "Clearly," remarks the statistician, "there is no tendency as yet for the railway industry to lessen its claim on the laboring population of the country." Those employees figure out but a little over 5 per mile—a low average as compared with Europe, and one which speaks well for the efficiency of the American workman. The total railway capital reaches an enormous sum, which may be briefly stated thus:

	Amount.	Per mile.
Common stocks	$3,982,009,602	$28 184
Preferred stocks	686,925,816	
Bonds	4,504,383,162	
Miscellaneous obligations	410,474,647	31,545
Income bonds	248,132,730	
Equipment trust notes	62,699,282	
Other debts	611,610,171	3,692
Total capital	$10,506,235,410	63,421

Of this total it appears that $1,563,022,233 of stocks and bonds were owned by the railways on June 30, 1893, an increase during the year of $171,565,180. $1,135,784,339 thereof were shares of stock; another indication of the tendency towards amalgamation in some form. It is of melancholy interest to note that nearly 15 per cent. of the above bonds and 61 per cent. of the above stocks received no return during that year.

The annual traffic per mile of railway shows a steady increase, whose average haul was 125 miles for freight and 24 miles for passengers. We hear so much of "through" business in these days that we are apt to forget until reminded by such small averages that the greater part of our railway traffic is "local," and is not carried very far. The average passenger journey is 15 miles in New England, 32 miles in Ohio, 38 miles in the South, 28 in the Northwest, 76 in Montana and Wyoming, 54 in Kansas, 50 in Texas, and 35 on the Pacific Slope. New England manages to crowd 61 passengers into each average train, while others must be content with 30 or 34, the average for the whole United States being 42. The average number of tons in a freight train is largest (238) for the Middle States, and smallest (121 and 137) for New England and Texas, the average for the United States being 184 tons. The relative economy of operation in different States and on different roads is thus shown. The percentage of operating expenses to revenue reveals a gradual increase, being 65.3 per cent. in 1888 and 67.8 per cent. in 1893. This steady encroachment of expenses on earnings is indicated in another way by the gradual decline in the average rate per ton-mile from 1 cent in 1888 to 8.7 mills in 1893—a small difference, but one productive of serious financial results when applied to so large an aggregate.

The record of accidents is humiliating. During the year, 2,727 employees and 299 passengers were killed, and 31,729 employees and 3,229 passengers were injured. Collisions, derailments, and accidents at stations account for the injuries and deaths of passengers. Employees were killed and injured principally by coupling cars and falling from trains, making a seriously large total. The transition period when the standard coupler is slowly coming into use is more destructive to switchmen than even the old link and pin. Train brakes when generally in use will also lessen the risks of employees. Compared with the ratio of safety in England, railroading in the United States is a venturesome employment, for safety to passengers and men is costly and railway incomes are limited.

TOLSTOI ON PATRIOTISM.

PARIS, August 15, 1894.

A MOST singular sequel to the famous demonstrations at Cronstadt and at Paris which consecrated what is commonly called the Russian alliance, is to be found in a small book of 180 pages, which might be termed a pamphlet, by Count Leo Tolstoi. It bears the suggestive title of 'The Christian Spirit and Patriotism.' It appeared at first in some Russian review; I have it before me in an anonymous French translation. It has already created some sensation, as does everything coming from the pen of the celebrated author of 'War and Peace.' That extraordinary novel has for its theatre the Russian soil during its invasion by Napoleon and the "grande armée." When Tolstoi wrote it, he was not yet thoroughly imbued with the ideas which have found expression in his latest works; he had not yet discovered his "road to Damascus." Still, you can see in 'War and Peace' very peculiar views on the pretended art of war, on the value of strategical combinations, on the futility of the military plans of the best generals. Tolstoi speaks with many details of all the generals who had to resist the French invasion; he speaks also of Napoleon and his marshals—he makes them, in fact, live before us; but he evidently believes that war is a great game of chance, that the elements have as much to do as the men with its grand results. This theory is carried to its extreme in 'War and Peace'; it contains a part of the truth, but it is not the whole truth.

Tolstoi felt already, many years ago, a sort of contempt for military glory; this contempt was changed into horror when he became a reformer. The author of 'My Religion,' which is merely the religion of the Gospel, of what the first Huguenots in France called the "pur Évangile," has now become a systematic non-resistant, and in this quality he has declared war on war. This new state of mind explains his attitude on the question of the Russian alliance, for, in his opinion, this alliance is fraught with war. He begins his attack in these terms:

"The Russians and the French have known each other for centuries; sometimes they were on amicable terms, but more often, unfortunately, their Governments made them fight against each other. Suddenly happened this odd thing: because, two years ago, a French squadron came to Cronstadt, and its officers, having landed, ate and drank much, saying and hearing meanwhile lying and stupid words; and because, in 1893, a Russian squadron, in its turn, came to Toulon, and its officers, going to Paris, ate and drank much, hearing meanwhile words even more lying and foolish—for this double reason, this is what happened: not only the persons who had drunk and eaten and made speeches, but even those who had been present at these festivities, nay, all those who had not been present, but who had heard of them and read accounts of them—millions of Frenchmen and of Russians—began suddenly to think that they had quite a singular affection for each other, that all the Russians adored all the French, and that all the French adored all the Russians."

Tolstoi goes on in this vein; he gives extracts from articles published in the *Novoe Vremya* on the subject of the visit of the Russians to Paris. The reports of this interesting event given to the Russians were so detailed that the writers of the *Novoe Vremya* even gave to their readers the menus of the dinners offered to the Russian admiral and his companions. "They published also," he says, "the speeches which were pronounced; but the menus were more varied than the speeches." The same idea was expressed in a hundred forms: We love each other; our object is not war, it is not revenge. No, our object is peace; we wish to insure tranquillity to Europe. We love the Emperor and the Empress of Russia; we love also M. Carnot and Mme. Carnot. We love the army, we love the navy, but we also love peace. Many were the decorations exchanged, many the presents made to the Emperor of Russia, to Admiral Avelan, to his sailors; the milk of human kindness seemed to flow in everybody's veins. It is not difficult for Tolstoi to show that under the veil of this sudden mutual dramatic and sensational affection, there was in reality something which did not find an outward expression. The Russians and the French were animated not so much by affection as by a common sentiment of animosity; the name of Germany was never pronounced, but the thought of Germany, of the Triple Alliance, of the dangers which might arise for France in case this Triple Alliance ever became offensive instead of remaining defensive, the relief experienced in France since it was felt that the alliance of the three Emperors was for ever broken, and since the Emperor of Russia had manifestly shown that he would keep his hands free, make himself as strong as possible, and use eventually his increasing strength in favor of peace—all these sentiments, conscious in some, unconscious in many, contributed to give to the manifestations at Paris an importance which may be overrated, but which it is impossible to deny.

The general feeling among the people was a very simple feeling: "The Russians make us a visit; let us receive them well. We are no longer alone in Europe, as we have been since 1870; we have at last a friend." And nothing could be more spontaneous than the general decoration of the capital during the visit of Avelan. In the most humble streets, at the windows of the poorest people, you could see the French and the Russian flags together.

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This genuine friendliness of the people had really something touching. It is only too easy for Tolstoi to point out many ridiculous incidents of the Russian visit; but there was in the manifestation of joy on the part of the population of Paris a chivalrous element which a man like him ought better to have perceived. The term chivalrous is perhaps too noble and too strong, but I find no other. In every Frenchman's thought the behavior of the Italians, who, with the memories of Solferino and Magenta fresh in their minds, boldly, one might say cynically, entered into the Triple Alliance, was strongly contrasted with the behavior of the Russians, who might reproach us with the useless war of the Crimea and the fall of Sebastopol, yet who would not, notwithstanding the most urgent entreaties, enter into any political alliance with our virtual enemies. The French, rightly or wrongly, credited the Russians with great magnanimity, and they wished not to appear insensible to it. I maintain, therefore, that there was something very unaffected, very spontaneous, very independent of charlatanism in the demonstrations of the French population on the arrival of the Russians.

Charlatanism, of course, in all such circumstances had fair play; the press especially found an admirable occasion for sensational articles and emotional demonstrations. The visit took place not very long after the Panama trial, when it had been found out that the press of Paris had more than its share in the plunder of the Panama Company, all under the name of "expenses of publicity." It therefore seized with great alacrity on Admiral Avelan and the Russians; it felt the need of a diversion; it became very emotional and patriotic. Patriotism was to do for it what Victor Hugo says of love:

"Et l'amour lui refait une virginité."

Admiral Avelan once appeared, in one of the fêtes, having on his right and on his left two gentlemen who had been somewhat prominent in the Panama affair. The admiral wears a beard with two points, and has, at a distance, a vague resemblance to Christ. A witty journalist, at the sight of Avelan with the two persons who were doing him the honors, said: "Look well at this, for no such thing has been seen since the days of Jesus."

Tolstoi compares the Russian demonstrations to the exhibitions sometimes given in certain mental epidemics: the whole affair seems to him a pathological case. This is a mere paradox, which does not deserve to be discussed. Tolstoi becomes more serious when he says that the protestations made in France as well as in Russia in the name of peace cover really projects and desires which are inconsistent with peace. Milliards of francs are spent in military preparations and millions of men are under arms in Europe. "The devil," says Tolstoi, "is the father of lies." He denounces as a lie this sudden affection of the Russians for the French, of the French for the Russians. He does not spare his own country:

"On the eve of the Turco-Russian war we witnessed a similar outburst. The Russians suddenly began to love I don't know which Slavic brethren. These Slavic brethren we had ignored for centuries, and really the Germans, the French, the English have always been and are even now infinitely nearer us than these Montenegrins and Serbs and Bulgarians. Then, also, we began to give fêtes and receptions which were magnified by these Aksakoffs and Katkoffs, who are justly looked upon in Paris as models of patriotism. Then, as now, there was talk of nothing else than of the love which the Russians suddenly felt for the Slavs of the Balkans. Then, exactly as it was yesterday in Paris, people met at Moscow, ate and drank and said foolish things, and felt moved with great sentiments, and spoke of unity and of peace; . . . and finally, Alexander II., who really did not want a war, consented to it. Hundreds and thousands of men died, and millions of men were reduced to a savage state and deprived of all Christian sentiments. Well, what took place in Toulon and in Paris, what is still going on under our eyes, leads evidently to an even more horrible carnage."

Tolstoi maintains that the people, the working population in all countries, is absolutely indifferent to political questions, which are the exclusive preoccupation of the governments. He maintains that patriotism is an artificial sentiment, fostered by these same governments, and which has no real foundation in the human heart, at least to-day in Europe. Patriotism seems to him the product of education, of literature, of journalism. "What," he says, "is called patriotism in our time is purely a disposition of mind perpetually kept up among the peoples by schools, religion, the venal press which works for the Government; it is also a temporary exaltation which the ruling classes excite by exceptional means in the class of people having the lowest moral and intellectual standard, and which is afterwards represented as the expression of the will of the whole people." "And what," he says again, "is this sublime sentiment which you teach the people? It is merely the preference given by each man to his own country compared to all other countries; it is perfectly well expressed in the German song, 'Deutschland, Deutschland über Alles.' You may replace the name of Germany with that of any other state, and you will have the complete formula of patriotism."

This attack on patriotism is really an attack on what the French call "chauvinism" and the English "Jingoism." It is followed by admirable pages on the Christian ideal of peace and universal brotherhood. It is impossible to read some of these pages without emotion. "Oh! how little would be necessary to deliver men from all the evils which stifle them if only they ceased to lie; if only they would not allow themselves to repeat the lie which is whispered in their ears; if they only told what they think and what they feel! . . . It is necessary that mankind should abandon the ancient public opinion, which has had its time, for the new public opinion. This change is as inevitable as the fall of the dead leaves in the spring." I am sadly afraid that the springtime Tolstoi dreams of is still very distant. The world is still in arms, and the struggle for life seems to become even more fierce.

THE SEINE, THE MEUSE, AND THE MOSELLE.—I.

BERNCASTEL AM MOSEL, August 14, 1894.

THE basin of the upper Meuse lies between those of the Seine and the Moselle, like the dwindling territory of a little prince between the growing kingdoms of two powerful neighbors. First on one side, then on the other, one of its branches is lopped off, leaving now only a long slender trunk stream between the encroaching headwaters of its rivals. These changes are so manifest that they should not be recorded only in technical, scientific journals; they deserve the attention of a wider circle of readers, and particularly of those who, in travelling, enjoy looking into the significance and development of the landscape as they do into the sequence and meaning of historical events. To emphasize the story of the three rivers, I shall select the most manifest examples of the changes produced by their interaction, and tell first of the full-swinging meanders of the Seine and the Moselle, afterwards of the looser meanders of the upper Meuse, and finally of the reason for this contrast in the diversion of the Aire at Grandpré from the Meuse to the Seine by the Aisne, and in the diversion of the upper Moselle above Toul from the Meuse to the lower Moselle by a branch of the Meurthe. The rivers have of course been named with no regard whatever to these changes, which are only beginning to be recognized by geographers; but a glance at a good map will make the case plain enough.

The Seine from its middle basin to the sea is characterized by a remarkably sinuous course, which fully doubles the river distance from Paris to Havre over the length of a direct line between the two cities, and at the same time certainly adds wonderfully to the picturesqueness of its valley. The swinging curves of the river, and the sympathetic relation between the slope of the valley sides and the turn of the river curves, is one of the beauties of this part of France; but it is a beauty that the hurried traveller is not likely to see. Railroads seldom select fine points of view to guide their tracks, and the through lines from the Channel to Paris avoid the roundabout river course. Highways are much better in this respect; but better still is the combination of a bicycle on the roads and an occasional walk from the roads up the hillsides to outlooks that command the adjacent country. The roads are so good, the maps show the country, the roads, and the towns so well, the towns are so conveniently placed for stopping, their hotels are so sufficiently comfortable for the reasonable traveller, and the prospects on the way are so delightful, that an excursion from Havre to Paris in this manner is to be highly recommended.

For the sake of variety, the beginning of the journey may be made on the steamer that runs up the river with the racing tide from Havre to Rouen; and if fortunate in coming when the boat leaves Havre early in the morning, the traveller will have a long afternoon to continue his view on the wheel from the upper port. Duclair, at the apex of the first great northward bend below Rouen, is the proper place to disembark, about noon, because from the hill just east of the town so many features of river scenery are displayed. On ascending to the summit, the hill is seen to be merely the edge of a remarkably even upland in which the Seine has cut down its meandering valley. Broad vistas open across gently undulating fields, all at about the same level in whatever direction the eye turns, north of the Seine or south of it. Patches of woodland close the view; a few overtopping church spires point the sites of upland villages. The valley is strongly incised in the upland, its average depth being four hundred feet hereabouts. On either side of the north-bend of Duclair is seen a great south-bend, partly traceable by the course of the river itself, and easily recognized for a greater distance by the steep slopes of the valley with their white chalk quarries or their dark belts of trees on the outer side of the river curves. Between these south-bends and stretching towards the observer is a long sloping spur of the southern upland, projecting into the north-bend of Duclair, covered by the forest of Mauny on its higher southern part, but occupied by fields and villages where it gradually descends close to the level of the river at its northern end. Similar spurs from the northern upland project into the adjacent

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south-bends, bearing the forests of Roumaire and of Jumièges on their shoulders, and slanting gently down to low fields and villages near their southern ends by the river. The high necks of the spurs are often narrower than their lower fields, which broaden into the river bends, so the northern and southern uplands are as it were dovetailed together for many miles up and down the winding Seine.

A marked feature of the district is the persistent manner in which the river swings on as long a curve as possible around the sloping spurs, throwing its current close under the steep bluff that descends from the opposite upland. This behavior so plainly suggests that the valley, steep on the concave slopes, descending gently on the convex spurs, has been cut down in the plateau by the river itself, that one wonders why earlier observers felt obliged to call on the agency of the sea to explain it. The river not only fills its curves, but it is expanding them by undercutting the steep bank and withdrawing from the sloping spurs; and of this fact, the view from Duclair offers a peculiarly interesting bit of evidence. Here coming down to the Seine by a narrow valley from the northeast is a little stream named Ste. Austreberte, like the village at its head ten miles away. Duclair lies at its mouth. Continuing in the same direction there is a dry valley for about three miles cutting obliquely across the next western spur, and thus isolating its southern part, which holds the forest of Jumièges, from the northern part which is crowned by the forest of the Trait. The local railway and the highway both follow the dry valley, thus making a short cut through the spur on the way from Duclair down to Caudebec. Now when you are on the ground, nothing can be plainer than that the Ste. Austrebert formerly ran on through this abandoned valley, mouthing at its further end in the next north-bend of the Seine near the village of Yainville; and further, that the change from that condition of things to the present has been caused by the lateral gnawing of the Seine, whereby it has expanded the Duclair north-bend and worked sideways into the neighboring channel of the Ste. Austreberte, then saying to the little stream, "Don't bother yourself about running further down your own valley, but come and join me here." It is one of the prettiest little examples of shifted streams that I have ever seen; and it illustrates perfectly the robust habit of the swinging Seine.

If you arrive early at Duclair and lose no time in going up the hill back of the town, you may, on descending, take your bicycle and run eastward past St. Martin and then southward by a not very good road, but passable, to Sahurs, at the southern end of the next eastward spur; there you may ferry over to La Bouille and lunch at a little café garden overlooking the river in that picturesque village. According to your rate of travel and your variety of objects, go on in the afternoon along the valley and see Rouen; or leave out the larger cities and cross over the narrow neck of the next spur by a zigzag road—pushing your bicycle up and coasting down—to Elbeuf and beyond as far as you choose. Don't go too far. Start early, take a good rest over the warmer hours at noon, and stop before dark, without too much perseverance in surely reaching the point you chose in the morning to stop in overnight. All the way up the valley, the Seine tells the same story, throwing its vigorous current close under the steep concave bluffs, and always edging away from the fields that descend so smoothly from the sloping spurs on the other side; not only filling its meanders, but enlarging them. The incident of the Ste. Austrebert is, however, not repeated by the Seine itself, although it is imminent in the case of the Epte, which enters from the north between Vernou and Bonnières. The highway on the north side of the valley between the little villages of Gasny and La Roche-Guyon crosses the narrowed neck of the spur now remaining between the river and its branch, and here the larger stream may some day cut through and take out the smaller one. The view down the two slopes to the Seine and the Epte from the sagging crest of this ridge-like neck is extremely suggestive of events to come. East of Paris, the detailed topographical maps show that the Marne has literally abstracted the Grand Morin below Meaux, thus indicating that the vigorous action of the trunk river is shared by this large upper branch.

Now crossing to the Moselle, it teaches the same lesson, but by another parable. This beautiful river leaves the open country of Lorraine and runs on its way to the Rhine in a deep and narrow valley between the plateaus of the Hunsrück on the southeast and the Eifel on the northwest. Like the lower Seine, its course here is most serpentine, and, like the Seine, it swings boldly round the outer curve of its meanders, leaving sloping spurs within the loops and cutting steep bluffs on the outside of its turns. Whether the Ste. Austrebert incident is here precisely repeated or not, I cannot say; but, curiously enough, the Moselle has played on itself the same trick that the Seine has played on the Ste. Austrebert. To see this well illustrated, it is best to go down below Trier and stop a day at the village of Mülheim or Lieser—or go on to the neighboring town of Berncastel if something more than village fare is desired. The river here runs with a strong steady current; in floods, it rises into the villages on its banks, and in some of the hotels you may see record of the height reached by the water above the first floor. To gain a view of the valley, go to Mülheim and walk southward for a mile or more up the road leading to Monzelfeld; you will there gain a height of five hundred feet over the river and the problem will be spread before you in a lovely picture. Something of the rolling uplands, several hundred feet above your station, may be seen both north and south; they hold out-of-the-way villages, and a primitive, hard-working, agricultural people, as I saw in crossing the Hunsrück to the Rhine. At about the level of our station, there is a very even and well cultivated platform, three or four miles broad, stretching up and down the course of the river; this marks a former valley plain, cut out of the rolling uplands by the Moselle before the land hereabouts was raised so high as it now stands. In consequence of a comparatively recent uplift of the region, the river has eroded its present deep and relatively narrow trench below its former valley plain; and the habit of meandering that was learned on the flat valley plain is still persisted in, thus producing the serpentine meanders for which the trench of the Moselle is famous; yet just below us the river runs for several miles on a tolerably direct course from west to east. One is always impressed, in looking at such a scene, with the immensity of time required for the river to cut the deep and narrow valley that it follows; it is seldom that a proper recognition is gained of the much greater immensity of time that was at an earlier period required to cut down and widen out the high level open valley plain, by which the rolling uplands on either side are broadly separated. Yet certainly a valley is narrow before it is wide; it must be young before it is mature. However long a time has elapsed during the erosion of the winding trench of the present Moselle in the uplifted land, a much greater time was needed for the erosion of the wider valley plain before the land was uplifted; but this only by the way.

The sweeping curves of the Moselle must be closely scanned. The Berncastel bend is full in sight and shows the broad river between the sloping spur on the north and the steep concave bluff on the south. Just as well as the Seine, the Moselle is cutting into the bluffs and leaving widened fields on the slope of the opposite spur. Here and there small lateral streams come down from the rolling uplands in steep-sided ravines, and these often guide the roads or paths that lead up to the villages on the high country. But in contrast with these narrow lateral ravines, the view before us shows two larger valleys joining the Moselle from the south, back of Mülheim, and two others coming from the north, back of the opposite village of Lieser. On looking closely, the two larger valleys back of Mülheim are seen to join at their heads, about two miles back from the river, forming a horse-shoe curve, open towards the Moselle and including an isolated hill within their circuit. The same is true of the two valleys back of Lieser. The curve of these horse-shoe valleys is the same as that prevailing in the meanders of the Moselle; the breadth of their floor is practically the same as that of the present river valley. Around the toe of each shoe, the concave bluffs of the enclosing hills are perfect matches of the concave bluffs that rise from the curves of the Moselle, even to the vineyards on the sunny slope around the northern shoe, and the forests on the shaded slope around the southern shoe. Inside of each shoe, the isolated hill descends gradually into the curve toward the encircling bluff, in proper river-made fashion. But along the horse-shoe valleys, there are now only small streams coming in from the back country; the floor of the valleys, about a hundred feet over present river level, is occupied by fertile fields, with close-packed villages here and there. Now is it not plain that the Moselle must have flowed around these horse-shoe curves, before it gained its present direct course between them? In that earlier time, it formed here a strong double loop, like a close-pressed letter S, but when the valley was cut down to within about a hundred feet of its present depth, the encroachments of the meanders at the ends of the S wore through its middle, and then the present straight course between Mülheim and Lieser was adopted. If further proof of this is wanted, it is found in the relative position of the horse-shoe valleys; the arm of the southern shoe being just opposite and in line with the west arm of the northern shoe.

It is curious that the guide-books of the region do not urge visitors to seek this delightful and impressive view, and explain to them a little of its meaning. Of course the ruined tower over Berncastel must be visited; the entrenchments of two centuries ago on the old valley plain above Traben are doubtless worth seeing; but why not give a due share of attention to the river ruins as well? They have been well known to geologists for years past; others like them are known elsewhere on the Moselle; but the traveller, even the intelligent traveller, runs past them blindfold. The recognition of these old river beds and bluffs—now fields and vineyards—adds wonderfully to the enjoyment of the region. As at Duclair on the Seine, so at Mülheim on the Moselle

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it is worth while stopping to see how fully these vigorous rivers are up to their duty of swinging round their meanders and widening their valleys on curves of true form.

W. M. D.

Correspondence.

SUNDRY QUESTIONS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: A constant reader for many years of your paper, who has learned much therefrom, and who cares more to reach the truth than to justify the theories of any political party, would regard it as a favor to himself and to many of your readers if you would answer the following five questions:

(1.) Was it not as justifiable for President Harrison to allow the Sherman Silver bill to become a law as for President Cleveland to allow the Gorman tariff to become law?

(2.) Is not the Democratic party as censurable for allowing a small minority of its representatives to force upon it a highly protective tariff as the Republican party for allowing a minority to compel it, in the case of the McKinley law, to adopt higher rates on certain articles than the majority approved?

(3.) Is not President Cleveland as wrong in failing to support the principles of civil-service reform which both he and his party have solemnly avowed, and in using patronage to influence legislation, as Senator Gorman in yielding to the influence of rich corporations and blocking his party's tariff legislation?

(4.) If a business revival shall follow the enactment of the Gorman tariff, but not so great as that which followed the passage of the McKinley law, will the lesser revival show the Gorman law to be better than the McKinley?

(5.) If those branches of business which are given by the Gorman tariff a protection satisfactory to Senator Aldrich and other reasonable protectionists shall prosper, and those branches which are deprived of all protection shall not prosper, can such a result fairly be made an argument against protection?

A Tariff Truth-Seeker.

Boston, September 1, 1894.

[Several of the questions asked by "A Tariff Truth-Seeker" we shall not attempt to answer, for two reasons. In the first place, the questions do not admit of answer, and in the second place it would be idle to answer them if they did. None but the Almighty can measure the relative turpitude of failing to support civil-service reform and of yielding to the influence of rich corporations. When any person is brought to the alternative of choosing between two evils, he may have to determine which is the less; but no such alternative here exists. Nor can business revivals be nicely measured and compared and referred to tariff laws as their causes. After the McKinley act was passed, we had fine crops in this country, while the harvests abroad were bad. We also had a Silver act and a Pension act. This year our crops are not of the best, while the yield in Europe promises to be excellent. For the solution of problems arising under such various conditions the best resort is to Mill's 'Logic.' So as to the relative prosperity of different branches of business. One of the arguments against protection is that, even if it makes a branch of business prosper, it is by taxing the whole community. Hence if such prosperity could be demonstrated to be due to tariff duties, it would make no difference with the free-trade argument.

The first two of our correspondent's questions admit of scarcely more definite answers. As to the first one, the answer depends upon the views held concerning the merits of the two bills. If the Silver bill was a good measure for the country, and if Mr. Harrison thought so, he was certainly justified in signing it. If it was a bad thing, but Mr. Harrison thought it was a good thing, he may or may not have been justified. If it was a bad thing, and he knew it, but knew that Congress would pass it over his veto, he may perhaps have been justified in signing it. As to Mr. Cleveland and the present law, his conduct in not affixing his signature has very little moral significance. He did not sign the bill, because it was not just the bill that he wanted to sign; but as he knew that it would be a beneficial measure to his country, he did not veto it. We do not understand how any comparison can be instituted between cases that have so little likeness as these. When it comes to "arraigning" an abstract entity, such as a political party, we confess that we find the same difficulty as Burke did in drawing an indictment against a whole people. But our correspondent assumes in his question facts which do not exist. The McKinley bill was not forced upon the party by the action of a small minority who declared that they would defeat the bill if they could not shape it as they wished. The Republicans could have passed it in any shape satisfactory to the majority, and did pass it in a shape satisfactory to them. Proof of this is furnished by the unanimity of the party organs in commending the measure, compared with the numberless protests now raised by the Democratic journals against the measure which half-a-dozen Senators compelled the party to accept rather than abandon reform altogether.—Ed. Nation.]

OUR FIRST POET.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In his account of the celebration of Bryant's one hundredth birthday, did not your correspondent make a not unimportant omission in speaking of the poets who achieved reputation in the first half of the century? Among the poets who might possibly be regarded as the "first" American poet it appears to me that the name of Richard Henry Dana should not be forgotten. Dana has some claim to be called the Nestor of American poets. Older than Halleck, his life (1787-1879) overlapped at both ends the life of Bryant, though his poems were not published until ten years after the appearance of "Thanatopsis." His poetry, though meagre in quantity, is more than respectable in quality. If essentially a "one-poem" poet, he cannot be dismissed with writers of the calibre of Hopkinson, Key, and Payne. The "Buccaneer" surely surpasses in literary excellence "Hail, Columbia," "The Star-Spangled Banner," or "Home, Sweet Home," even if it does not rival those homely productions in popular esteem; and in originality and imaginative quality it is, in the judgment of some, superior to anything Halleck ever did. Upon its first appearance the "Buccaneer" was greeted by distinguished English critics as the most original contribution to American poetry that had yet appeared. Some of Dana's minor poems, as, for example, the "Beach Bird" and the "Pleasure Boat," are very sweet and graceful. It should not be forgotten, moreover, that Dana was the one to whom "Thanatopsis" was submitted for publication, and who was responsible for its appearance.

Emerson Opdycke Stevens.

Cleveland, O., August 28, 1894.

HISTORY FOR OHIO SCHOOLS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: While glancing over the shelves of a bookstore recently, my eye fell upon a little volume entitled 'One Thousand and One Questions and Answers on United States History.' As I was turning the leaves at random, I noticed the following question on the administration of Jefferson: "What laws were first repealed?" The answer was, "The unpopular laws against foreigners and the freedom of the press." I concluded that it might be worth while, for amusement, to look a little further into the work of a writer on United States history who was ignorant of the method of demise which befell the famous Alien and Sedition Laws. A little further on I discovered that John Marshall "*performed the great task of modifying the laws adapted to the colonial times to suit the altered form of government in the national period.*"

I was striking "pay dirt," so to speak, in my search for amusement, and I kept on. The query, "With whom was the idea that the world is round original?" is answered: "Sir John Mandeville, *in the first book ever written*, declared the fact, A.D. 1356." Turning but a single leaf, the question is asked: "What was the belief in the thirteenth century respecting the shape and size of the earth?" and answered, "They began to admit the rotundity of the earth, but greatly underestimated its size."

This discovery that the people of the *thirteenth* century were beginning to admit the truth of an idea which, according to the answer of a preceding question, did not originate until the middle of the *fourteenth*, prepared me, in a measure, for the following:

"(159.) What of Professor Morse's invention?

"(*Answer.*) He invented the magnetic telegraph, which was the *grandest event during Polk's administration.*

"(160.) What was the first news ever sent on the wire?

"(*Answer.*) *The announcement of Polk's nomination.*"

But the most startling information is yet to come (p. 76):

"(369.) What was the Bland silver bill?

"(*Answer.*) *It demonetized silver and made gold the sole standard of our currency!*"

As the *Nation* is not professedly a humorous paper, it might seem out of place to bring this nonsense to its columns, but there is a serious side to the matter. This is one of a series of

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books which are sold to our country school-teachers at almost every teachers' institute in Ohio and probably in adjoining States. It has been on the market since 1882, and it bears the imprint of a Cleveland firm doing perhaps the largest book-business in Ohio (The Burrows Brothers' Co.). When such a book can meet with sufficient sale to call from its author (one B. A. Hathaway) similar works in at least seven other branches, with the promise of more to follow, one is tempted to wish that we could have reënacted what this would-be historian calls the law "which punished freedom of speech and of the press with fine and imprisonment." W. H. JOHNSON.

GRANVILLE, O., August 28, 1894.

OFFICIAL INTELLIGENCE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I was desirous of ascertaining what relation exists in the several States betweeen taxation and the suffrage franchise. My books of reference do not agree in the case of Pennsylvania. To clear this up, I addressed a letter to the Secretary of that State, asking if the payment of taxes was a condition precedent to the exercise of the suffrage franchise. The reply from the Secretary's office consisted of two printed forms, one a letter of transmittal enclosing a blank for use by a foreign corporation doing business in Pennsylvania, and conveying the information that a fee of $10.75 was required for filing the enclosed blank.

These blanks were returned to the Secretary's office with a suggestion that they had probably been sent to me through clerical error, and asking that the information requested be furnished me. They were, however, again forwarded to me with a letter of transmittal, written on the headed paper of the Secretary's office, of which the following is a copy:

PENNSYLVANIA. OFFICE OF THE SECRETARY OF THE COMMONWEALTH,
HARRISBURG, August 27, 1894.

Frank K. Mills, Esq., Leavenworth, Kans:

MY DEAR SIR: In reply to your letter of the 24th inst., I would beg to say that the only condition precedent to the exercise of the right of doing business in this State is that a foreign corporation file a statement which I enclose, and pay this Department the fee of $10.75 for doing so. This fee is not at all in the nature of a tax, but is a police regulation which was adopted for the protection of the citizens of this State. Kindly give this matter your further attention and let me hear from you. Yours very truly,

WM. F. HARRITY,
Secretary of the Commonwealth,
per T.

It is a matter of congratulation that the secretaries of other States do not make use of a foreign corporation law to extort $10.00 from their correspondents.

FRANK H. MILLS.

LEAVENWORTH, KANS., August 31, 1894.

THE MARQUIS OF SALISBURY'S AGNOSTICISM.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The magnificent address of the Marquis of Salisbury before the British Association, August 6, has some very forcible sentences which will fairly allow a much wider application of them than the author himself has made. Referring to the theory of evolution and the vast problems suggested by it, which science has not even begun to solve, and knows not how or where it could begin to study, he says: "The great danger scientific research is running at the present time is the acceptance of mere conjecture in the name and place of knowledge, in preference to making frankly the admission that no certain knowledge can be attained." Then he adds these most weighty and sensible words:

"We are under no obligation to find a theory if the facts will not provide a sound one. To the riddles which Nature propounds to us, the profession of ignorance must constantly be our only reasonable answer. The cloud of impenetrable mystery hangs over the development and still more over the origin of life. If we strain our eyes to pierce it, with the foregone conclusion that some solution is and must be attainable, we shall only mistake for discoveries the figments of our own imagination."

Instead of "to the riddles which Nature," say to the riddles which *religion*, "propounds to us, the profession of ignorance must constantly be our only reasonable answer," and we shall have a truth quite as widely and practically important. So, instead of "the origin of life," let us say, "the cloud of impenetrable mystery hangs over the development and still more over the origin" of *religion*. Then the following sentence describes exactly the way in which all the theologies in the world have been manufactured. "If we strain our eyes to pierce" this mystery, "with the foregone conclusion that some solution is and must be attainable, we shall only mistake for discoveries the figments of our own imagination." Exactly so were the theories of the Nicene and Athanasian creeds devised—those theories of "Trinity and Incarnation" which Mr. Gladstone, in the August *Nineteenth Century*, speaks of as "the central truth of the Gospel," which he says is testified to by some four hundred millions of Christians, but of which—in spite of Mr. Gladstone's assertion—the Apostolic age *demonstrably* knew nothing. One needs only to study without bias, and purely for the sake of getting at the truth, the methods and the state of mind of the men who made those creeds, and he will be compelled to see that they went to work upon the language of Scripture and the traditions that were around them exactly as Lord Salisbury describes—"with the foregone conclusion that some solution must be attainable." Evidence for their theories there was none, and in the nature of the case there could be none; the mystery of the Divine nature is at least as impenetrable as that of the origin of life. X.

NORTHAMPTON, MASS., August 29, 1894.

Notes.

THE third volume of Mr. James Ford Rhodes's *History of the United States after 1850* is now getting into print, and will be published by the Harpers in the course of the winter. The interval between this and the succeeding volume will be partly spent by the author in procuring much-needed physical rest abroad.

The University Press, Cambridge, England, has committed to Mr. W. J. Stillman a volume in its historical series, viz., the History of Italy from 1815. Mr. Stillman will have the assistance of Senator Chiala, author of a series of publications of diplomatic documents on the epoch in question, and will moreover have access to Signor Crispi's unrivalled collection of notes and documents relating to the period after 1848.

Macmillan's autumn list of announcements we can give but in chosen examples, following with one exception the divisions by authors adopted by the firm. American:—'American Book-Plates,' by Charles Dexter Allen; 'The Production of Ex-Libris,' by John Vinycomb; 'The Life and Art of Joseph Jefferson,' by William Winter; 'Architect, Owner, and Builder before the Law,' by T. M. Clark; 'Weather and Forecasting Methods,' by Thomas Russell, U. S. Engineers Office; 'Chronological Outlines of American Literature,' by Selden L. Whitcomb; 'History of the English Language,' by Prof. Oliver Farrar Emerson of Cornell; 'Selected Poems by Aubrey De Vere,' with an introduction by Prof. Woodberry; 'Text-book of Anatomy and Physiology for Nurses,' by Diana Clifford Kimber; 'Mental Development in the Child and the Race,' by Prof. J. Mark Baldwin of Princeton, the first volume being of "Facts and Theories"; 'A Course in Experimental Psychology,' by Prof. J. McKeen Cattell of Columbia; 'A Dictionary of Chemical Solubilities—Inorganic,' by A. M. Comey; 'A Corner of Cathay,' by Adele M. Fielde; 'History, Prophecy, and the Monuments,' by Prof. J. F. McCurdy of Toronto, in two volumes; 'Sketch of the Political History of England,' by Goldwin Smith, and an enlarged edition of his 'Essays on Questions of the Day'; Paulsen's 'Character and Historical Development of the Universities of Germany,' translated by Prof. E. D. Perry of Columbia; Viollet-le-Duc's 'Construction,' translated by George Martin Huss; and 'Raphael's Madonnas and Other Great Pictures,' with text by Karl Károly. English:—The second volume of the third edition of Bryce's 'American Commonwealth'; 'Essays on International Law,' by Prof. Westlake of Cambridge; 'A History of Epidemics in Great Britain,' by Charles Creighton, M.D.; 'A Short History of English Commerce,' by W. Cunningham, D.D.; 'The British Fleet,' by Commander Robinson, R.N.; 'London Up to Date,' by George Augustus Sala; 'Essays and Studies,' by J. Churton Collins, reprinted from the *Quarterly Review*; a new and complete edition of Browning's works, in nine volumes octavo; an Index to the six volumes of Masson's Life of Milton; 'Western Europe in the Fifth Century,' and 'Western Europe in the Eighth Century,' Oxford lectures by the late E. A. Freeman; 'The Letters of Matthew Arnold,' edited by G. W. E. Russell, M.P.; 'The Life of Sir A. C. Ramsay,' by Sir Archibald Geikie; 'The Life of Cardinal Manning,' by Edmund Sheridan Purcell; 'The Life and Letters of R. W. Church, late Dean of St. Paul's'; 'John Russell, R.A.,' "the prince of crayon portrait-painters," by George C. Williamson; 'Sketches in Sport and Natural History,' by the late George Kingsley, M.D.; a second series of 'Studies in Modern Music,' by W. H. Hadow; 'The Uses of Life,' by Sir John Lubbock; Chaucer's 'Canterbury Tales,' edited in two volumes by A. W. Pollard; Lord Berner's 'Froissart's Chronicles' reduced to one volume by G. C. Macaulay; Mazzini's Essays, chiefly political, translated by Bolton King; 'Tales of Naples and the Camorra,' by Charles Grant; the Syriac Gospels, transcribed from the Sinaitic Codex; 'Syriac Literature,' by William Wright; 'Life in Ancient Egypt,' from the German of Adolf Erman; 'Australia,' by Miss Shaw; 'The Meaning of History,' by Frederic Harrison; a translation of Adolf Holm's 'Greek History from its Origin'; 'The End of Elfinland,' by Jane Barlow; 'Wild Animals in Captivity,' by J. E. Cornish; a translation of Schorlemmer's 'Rise and Development of Organic Chemistry'; and 'Modern Book Illustration' and 'Pen Drawing and Pen Draughtsmen,' by Joseph Pennell.

D. Appleton & Co. will publish directly 'Abandoning an Adopted Farm,' by Kate Sanborn.

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'The Life and Inventions of Thomas A. Edison,' by W. K. L. Dickson and Antonia Dickson, which has partly appeared in *Cassier's Magazine*, will shortly be brought out, with profuse illustrations, by T. Y. Crowell & Co.

From the Scribners we are to have 'The Wagner Story-Book: Firelight Tales of the Great Music Dramas,' by W. H. Frost, with illustrations by Sydney R. Burleigh; and "The Norseland Series," three volumes by Prof. H. H. Boyesen, chiefly new editions, and a fourth, 'Norseland Tales,' hitherto unpublished.

Houghton, Mifflin & Co. are passing through the press Mr. Samuel T. Pickard's authoritative 'Life and Letters of Whittier,' which will not preclude a volume devoted to this poet in the "American Men of Letters Series," to be prepared by Prof. George R. Carpenter of Columbia; and the 'Life, Letters, and Diary of Lucy Larcom,' edited by the Rev. D. D. Addison.

The Letters of Emily Dickinson are soon to be issued by Roberts Bros.

'Character Studies, with some Personal Recollections,' is the title of a work by Frederick Saunders of the Astor Library, which Thomas Whittaker has in press.

While the new 'Ritter's Geographisch-Statistisches Lexikon' (Leipzig: Wigand; New York; Westermann) is advancing rapidly, and has fairly entered on C in its fifth instalment, a rival French enterprise has been launched, 'Lexique Géographique du Monde Entier' (Paris: Berger-Levrault & Cie.; New York: Dyrsen & Pfeiffer). The new gazetteer is almost identical in size with Ritter, giving three columns to the page, however, instead of two, and making use of graphic signs for post, telegraph, and railroad stations. For the most of Europe as for the United States, the minimum population of inclusion is 350 (occasionally 250) inhabitants, but the stations just named will be included anyhow, and in this particular no work that has yet appeared can compare with the 'Lexique Géographique.' The specimen page shows an excellent typography, and more titles but a little less fulness than the corresponding tract in Ritter. The complete work will make three volumes of 1,000 to 1,200 pages each.

Another considerable subscription work, that commends itself to lovers of dogs, 'Geschichte und Beschreibung der Rassen des Hundes,' by Ludwig Beckmann (Brunswick: Vieweg; New York: Westermann), is entering on its second volume. It is illustrated with numerous woodcuts.

The indispensable congeries of catalogues called 'The Publishers' Trade-List Annual' duly makes its appearance for 1894 (New York: *Publishers' Weekly*). It is one of the few publications in the world which we prize for its bulk rather than for its quality, and it actually overspreads its predecessor when placed beside it. It is perhaps somewhat remarkable that the binding together of so many catalogues had had no appreciable effect in producing uniformity of style.

'The Image of War, or Service on the Chin Hills' (Calcutta: Thacker, Spink & Co.), by Surgeon-Captain A. G. E. Newland, is the photographic history of a military expedition on the Indian frontier. An admirable series of pictures illustrates incidents in the march of the troops, scenes at the encampments (interesting as showing the strange mixture of races in the men composing the force), and representations of the natives of the different tribes encountered, their dwellings and manners of life, as well as of the scenery of the Hills. The most striking of the groups of scenes in camp-life is that of the "provost-marshal at work." In some of the pictures of the native villages there are to be seen in front of the houses posts, hung with trophies, which are not unlike the totem posts of Alaska. The accompanying text consists of disconnected sketches, generally explanatory of the pictures, but also giving a brief account of the expedition. This was composed of four columns of troops operating from different directions, and was sent out in the open season of 1891-92 to subdue the Chins, who were in the habit of making destructive raids into the plains of Assam and Burma. The end was accomplished without bloodshed.

In her two-volume work on 'Primitive Civilizations, or Outlines of the History of Ownership in Archaic Communities' (London: Swan Sonnenschein; New York: Macmillan), Miss E. J. Simcox has turned to account the results of recent research in England, France, and Germany. She believes that a complete history of ownership would furnish a complete history of civilization, or of the human race; "for the character of religious beliefs, the state of art and science, and the course of political and social development are all reflected in proprietary institutions." The question of ownership is only one of many features of primitive civilization with which the author deals; agriculture, commerce, industry, classes of society, domestic relations, family and commercial law, forms of government, the succession of dynasties—all receive considerable attention, especially as regards ancient Egypt, Babylonia, and China. The whole of the second volume is devoted to China. The introductory remarks concerning the analogies in the civilization of these three countries and concerning the ethnological affinity of their inhabitants are somewhat vague and desultory; but the body of the work contains much interesting material gathered from a wide range of authorities.

Dr. John Nisbet's book on British Forest Trees was noticed in these columns about a year ago. He has now published 'Studies in Forestry,' being a short course of lectures on the principles of sylviculture delivered at the Botanic Garden, Oxford, during the Hilary and Michaelmas terms, 1893 (Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan). The volume contains fourteen chapters, or lectures, and is a concise but well-digested treatise on forestry, both in general, and especially as relating to Britain. The author argues that, on the whole, mixed forests are more beneficial to the land than forests of one kind of tree, and considers it well that the shade of the forest should be so dense that the soil should be protected from sun and wind, and from "a more or less rank and unremunerative growth of weeds." In the eighth chapter he gives good reasons for preferring natural reproduction of forests to the system of planting from nurseries, but admits that sometimes nature may be the better for a little artificial assistance. Now that Americans are waking up to the need of forest preservation and sylviculture, such books as this are likely to prove of use as well as of interest.

Prof. Trimble's second volume on 'The Tannins' (Lippincott) is devoted to the results of the author's investigations of the astringent principles from "nine species of oaks and one species each of mangrove, canaigre, and chestnut." The method of preparation of the tannin is given in each case, and there is some discussion of the behavior of the several tannins with different reagents. Mangrove-tannin comes principally from India; but there is no reason why a limited quantity might not be procured from the shores of the Gulf of Mexico. Canaigre is not a familiar word: it is given to a kind of dock (*Rumex hymenosepalus*, Torrey), which in general appearance is much like the "yellow dock" (*R. crispus*) so common in waste places. The writer states that the tuberous roots have been used by the Mexicans in tanning for over two centuries. The quantity of tannin in the roots is large, since the average is about 30 per cent. Experiments are now being conducted in Arizona to see whether the plant can be profitably cultivated for its production of tannin. Chestnut, both the wood and the bark, yields tannin, and in the mountains of Pennsylvania and Virginia are works for the production of the "extract," which "appears in commerce in both liquid and solid form." That tannins have been the subject of much investigation may be seen from the fact that an index to the literature of them fills no less than thirty pages of this monograph.

John Wiley & Sons publish Dr. A. Worcester's 'Small Hospitals,' whose value is increased by Mr. W. Atkinson's "Suggestions for Hospital Architecture, with plans for a small hospital." The text is full of shrewd advice for the concentration of the energy of a community, and the control of those divergent forces which, even in the best of causes, render brotherly coöperation difficult. Such antagonisms acquire most force in the smallest societies, and call for no small measure of diplomacy. In all this preparatory work the author's advice is sound, and is given colloquially, not *ex cathedra*. There should be a crop of such hospitals if the little book is read as widely as it deserves. The plans are good and economical.

Prof. Berthold Litzmann of Bonn, who enjoys the distinction of being one of the few German professors condescending to take an active interest in the literary movements of the present time, has published an instructive book on 'Das deutsche Drama in den litterarischen Bewegungen der Gegenwart' (Hamburg: Leopold Voss). An outgrowth of public lectures delivered at the university, and appealing to the thoughtful student of literature rather than to the literary historian, the book is a most refreshing oasis in the desert of exhaustive and exhausting monographs, of purely antiquarian interest, in which so large a part of modern criticism is languishing. Prof. Litzmann is a firm believer in the idealism of the great eighteenth-century writers, but this does not make him a worshipper of the pseudo-idealistic formalism of men like Gutzkow and Heyse, and it does not prevent him from feeling the thrill of new life which is pulsating in the boisterous and effervescent "Grün-Deutschland." His instinct for the significant and representative makes him point to Sudermann and Hauptmann as the two men destined to become the regenerators of German literature. There is something naïve and juvenile in his appeal to the latter to cleanse himself from the poison of Ibsenism: for where would Hauptmann be without Ibsen? Still, if Hauptmann really is the great poet he seems to be, he must of necessity outgrow Ibsen and his kin. If for nothing else, this book deserves to be read for the masterly analysis of Hauptmann's first great effusions, "Vor Sonnenaufgang" and "Das Friedensfest." We regret that "Die Weber" did not receive more careful attention from Prof. Litzmann.

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Leconte de Lisle left enough verse, of the kind approved by his difficult taste, to fill a volume. Mme. Leconte de Lisle intends to publish these poems about the end of the present year. Several of them have appeared in the *Revue des Deux Mondes*, but the most important feature of the volume will be the fragments of the "États du Diable," left unfinished by the poet. It is a terrible picture of mediæval horrors, in which Alexander VI. and the Borgias figure prominently. Lemerre will bring out the book. It appears that the drama "Frédégonde," in verse, which Leconte de Lisle had blocked out, and of which he had completed the first act, was burned by him as unsuited to the stage. He was so diffident concerning the worth of his verse that, despite the pleadings of his wife, he had resolved to burn "Qaïn," that masterpiece of his, had not De Heredia arrived at the critical moment and saved the poem. These details are given by Mme. Leconte de Lisle in an interview with a reporter of the Paris *Temps*.

Mme. Octave Feuillet has published reminiscences of no particular value under the title 'Quelques Années de ma Vie' (Paris: Calmann Lévy). There are some entertaining passages and allusions to certain literary events—such as (and mostly) the publication of her husband's novels or the performance of his plays—a good deal of description of her awe and admiration of Napoleon III. and the Empress Eugénie, for whom she seems to have entertained something of the feeling of Mme. de Sévigné for Louis XIV. This and an account of the dresses made for her by Worth are what strikes one most on reading the well-printed pages; and when the book is finished, one wonders at the very small quantity of matter which can be made into an octavo volume of nearly 400 pages.

The fourth number of the Boston quarto "quarter-yearly Review of the Liberal Arts called the *Knight Errant*, being a Magazine of Appreciation," rounds out the first volume in the space of two years. The editors frankly announce a want of material support, and will publish no more unless their Appreciation is appreciated at its worth in fine linen by a discerning public. The vagueness of the gospel of this magazine is as obvious at the end as at the beginning of its enterprise, and we cannot honestly say we think the sum of doctrine or of fancy which makes up the letter-press worth the cost of so sumptuous a product, whose artistic side has far surpassed the literary. Paper, presswork, and some of the photogravure illustrations have been admirable; but what sort of a Review have we had?

The third annual report of the Massachusetts Trustees of Public Reservations tells a meagre tale of gifts, as might have been expected from the dull, hard year. The document is valuable, however, for its appendix, which reviews the extent and condition of public holdings in the shore towns of the State.

In spite of political unrest and talk of disunion, special efforts are now being made by the Storthing to develop the railroad system of Norway. At the last session of Parliament a liberal initial appropriation was made for additions to the present system, aggregating 490 kilometres. From an article in a Swedish railroad journal it appears that, owing to natural causes, special difficulties present themselves, quite equalling those of the Swiss roads. Of particular interest, from an engineering standpoint, is a section 75 kilometres long, between Voss and Taugevand, near Bergen, which will connect with the trunk line Christiania-Bergen, one of the most popular of the Scandinavian tourist routes. The estimated cost of this short stretch is 14,500,000 kroners (say $4,000,000). It will require 11,464 metres of tunnelling, and 359,000 cubic metres of rock will be blasted. An important element in the running of this portion of the road is the snow, especially in the valleys. Numerous snow-sheds will have to be erected, and on the mountains watch-towers are to be placed at intervals of two and one-half kilometres. This new enterprise is only one of the many results of Norway's increasing popularity as a tourist land.

The *Annales de Géographie* for July opens with an account of the French colony of the Ivory Coast and the Sudan bordering it on the north, by M. Marcel Monnier. For the development of the abundant resources of the country labor alone is needed, and for this the only hope appears to be in the conversion of the negro to Mohammedanism. This propagandism, which is spreading gradually but irresistibly over western Africa, is less of a religious than an industrial nature. The black Mohammedans teach the natives to weave, to prepare skins, and to cultivate the ground, not for daily food merely, but to supply the markets with articles for barter. The manners of the savage are softened, his fetishism is given up, he abandons his hut of branches for a clay house built around a court-yard, and becomes, as it were, a useful member of society. The country contains considerable gold, which is found mostly in "pockets." These are emptied by black slaves, who carry the dirt to be washed to the nearest water, sometimes two or three hours' march distant. The quantity does not seem to be sufficient to cover the expense of European mining. M. Monnier went as far as Kong, an important walled town in the Sudan, and, writing of its great fair held every five days, corrects the exaggerated impressions which have prevailed of the extent and value of the commerce of these Sudanese markets. M. E. Blanc continues his description of the progress of Russian colonization in Central Asia, treating especially of the agricultural development of the country. Cotton is the most important crop, and, with the opening of the new line of railway connecting the Caspian and the Black Seas north of the Caucasus, will probably increase greatly in the future. One province alone, Ferghanah, now sends yearly more than two hundred million pounds over the Transcaspian Railway, or more than twelve times as much as the whole country exported in 1888.

The two sheets in Part 7 of Paul Langhans's "Deutscher Kolonial-Atlas" (Westermann) exhibit the German protectorate in Southwest Africa, and the spread of Germans and German interests in Europe—for which last several small maps are requisite.

From Dietrich Reimer, Berlin, we have the first part of a grand ancient atlas, "Formæ Orbis Antiqui," by Dr. Heinrich Kiepert, assisted by his son, Dr. Richard Kiepert, than whom two more competent authorities could not be named. The form is a large folio, and each map is accompanied by critical text, with references to the sources. Special attention has been paid to longitudes, altitudes, roads (in the Roman times particularly), and spelling of names of places. The scale of these maps is a delight to the eye. Our countryman, Ramsay, has a deservedly prominent place in the references regarding hither Asia Minor. The Aegean, northern Greece, Illyricum and Thrace, the British Isles and Spain, are the other maps in the first group.

The general diffusion of elementary education in Bavaria is evident from the fact that of the 26,383 recruits for the army levied in 1893, only six were unable to read and write. In France 6.43 per cent. of the recruits of the same year did not know the letters of the alphabet. In Saxony the percentage of the illiterate is slightly less, and in Würtemberg somewhat greater than in Bavaria. In Prussia the number varies considerably in different provinces, being smallest in Hanover (0.04) and largest in the districts beyond the Rhine bordering on France (4.01, a sudden increase over 1892, when it was 2.75). Posen also makes a bad showing (1.72) in comparison with Brandenburg (0.15), Westphalia (0.08), Silesia (0.57), Schleswig-Holstein (0.10), East Prussia (0.98), Pomerania (0.22), and Alsace and Lorraine (0.30).

The Russian Government has already decided to establish a medical school for women at St. Petersburg. This step acquires additional importance from the fact that only a few years ago the Ministry of Instruction was strongly opposed to every movement favorable to the higher education of women. The medical institution organized by Prof. Gerie for this purpose was closed in 1884, and all efforts recently made by this gentleman to revive it were utterly futile. The sudden and radical change of policy is due to the influence of Prince Wolkowski, whose excellent address delivered at Chicago during the World's Fair on the relations of intellectual culture to the State will doubtless be remembered by many Americans.

At the summer graduation ceremony of the University of Glasgow, held on July 26, the degree of Bachelor of Medicine and Master in Surgery was conferred on women candidates for the first time in the history of any of the Scottish universities. The two leading graduates in this new departure were Miss Marion Gilchrist, Bothwell, and Miss Alice Lilian Louisa Cumming, Glasgow. Both had been students at Queen Margaret College, now the Women's Department of the University of Glasgow, for seven years—three in arts and four in medicine, their clinical work having been taken in the Royal Infirmary and Sick Children's Hospital. The University degree in arts not being open to women at the time, Miss Gilchrist took in arts the general certificate of Queen Margaret College. She now appears on the University graduation lists as the third in rank of the six candidates who took the degree of M. B. C. M., "with high commendation."

—The *Atlantic* for September contains hardly anything very striking or attractive, although it maintains its usual unexceptionable literary tone. Perhaps the most original article is that on "Old Boston Mary," in which Mr. Josiah Flynt gives a picturesque account of an old gypsy tramp who used to live in a shanty in the outskirts of Boston, and contrives to invest with a good deal of interest a personage probably nothing but repulsive to those who met her in the flesh. "The Kidnapped Bride," by Mrs. Catherwood, is a story full of dramatic fire. Mrs. Kate Chopin has a story, "Tante Cat'rinette," which, as will be guessed from its name, is mostly in dialect. There is also a sprinkling of dialect in Grace Howard Peirce's pathetic sketch entitled "For their Brethren's Sake." "Rus in Urbe," by Miss Edith Thomas, although not much more than a collection of scraps, has many shrewdly humorous observations on a number of amiable human weaknesses. Those who cannot reconcile themselves to the Gallicism "It goes without saying," will read sympatheti-

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cally a denunciation of it in the Contributors' Club.

—The best article in *Scribner's* is Mr. Crawford's description of Bar Harbor, which can be read with pleasure even by those who care nothing for the subject. He is here in his happiest vein, brimming over with good things, and shows himself master of the art of expressing effectively what, under less skilful treatment, would be commonplace—as when he speaks of "that mysterious tribe of people who look as if they could not possibly receive a dozen letters a year, and yet who are always assiduously looking out for them"; or, of "queer little dogs in which the absence of breed produces a family likeness." Carl Lumholtz contributes a second paper on the Tarahumari Indians, and contrives to crowd into a small space a great deal of curious detail about their customs and peculiarities. He devotes a considerable portion of his article to a description of their foot-races, in which he says there is more or less cheating, "especially if the Indians have become half-civilized." Thomas Nelson Page contributes the first half of a story, "Little Darby," treating of Southern life in his usual manner. "The Folly of Mocking at the Moon," by Gaston Fay, is a drolly absurd sailor-man's yarn about the sinking of the *Alabama* by the *Kearsarge*.

—The *Century* is a remarkably good number. It opens with an interesting article by Dr. J. M. Rice on "School Excursions in Germany," describing a seven days' trip taken by the school of practice of the Pedagogical Seminary at Jena last summer. This tour is described with much detail, with a view to introducing the custom among us. Like the practical man he is, Dr. Rice has already induced one American school to act on his suggestion, and gives an account of the experiment in the current *Forum*. Another article bearing on the same subject is that on "Playgrounds for City Schools," by Jacob A. Riis, who, after showing how poorly our public schools are provided in that respect, and how much need there is of a better provision, proposes that enough land be condemned around every school-house to make a small park and playground; but as he estimates that the scheme would cost thirteen millions of dollars, there is small hope of its realization. Mr. Joseph B. Bishop, in "The Price of Peace," after repeating the now familiar story of the blackmail levied by Tammany Hall on corporations, points the moral that the men who allow themselves to be blackmailed are in great measure responsible for the corruption of our politics. Prof. Woodberry brings out a second batch of Poe letters, ranging from 1839 to 1843, which throw some light on the literary manners and customs of the time, and furnish further evidence that Poe's habits of intemperance constituted the great obstacle to his advancement in his career. There are two good short stories—"Jake Stanwood's Gal," by Anna Fuller, notable for its energetic movement, and "The Whirligig of Time," by George A. Hibbard, which is a neat bit of parlor comedy. Mr. Timothy Cole's engraving of a painting by Gabriel Metsu should be mentioned, as also the frontispiece from a painting by Cecilia Beaux.

—About one-half of *Harper's* is given up to fiction. The brightest thing in it is Brander Matthews's "The Royal Marine," a sparkling novelette full of witty dialogue and amusing situations. It has some points of resemblance, but more of contrast, to Mr. Crawford's story in the *Century*. Mr. Matthews seems to produce his epigrams more spontaneously than his confrère, and has the advantage of seeing American society through the eyes of a genuine native. Apropos of the Bryant centenary, Mr. J. W. Chadwick gives an account of the genesis of "Thanatopsis," reprinting the original draft as written in the poet's seventeenth year and printed in the *North American Review*, and pointing out some of the emendations of the subsequent editions. Mr. Chadwick also suggests the literary sources of the lugubrious reflections on life and death which could not have been altogether natural to a boy of sixteen. Mr. Alfred Parsons writes of Japan as gracefully as he draws, and Mr. Julian Ralph describes primitive modes of life in West Virginia, which seem almost more remote from our civilization than do the Japanese customs. Mr. Caspar Whitney's "Riding to Hounds in England" will be welcomed by teachers of rhetoric who are anxious to offer their pupils fresh examples of "English as she should not be wrote." Here is one specimen out of many: "Horseflesh maintains a more universal aristocracy, for, as a rule, the average is about the same, each country requiring a standard which all endeavor to reach, whether to be in the vogue, or for the more practical purpose of living with the hounds."

—In 1837 Congress appropriated $30,000 to purchase from Mrs. Madison the "manuscripts of the late Mr. Madison." After the lapse of half-a-century the general public is permitted to know what was comprised in that purchase, and No. 4 of the Bulletin of the Bureau of Rolls and Library of the Department of State contains a calendar of the manuscripts. A cursory examination of its contents gives an exalted idea of the shrewdness of Mrs. Dolly Madison and of the simplicity of the Government officials who perfected the transaction. The "gold-brick" and "green-goods" exchanges are nearly similar, considered from the standpoint of the purchaser. We do not mean to assert that the sale was a job, but the Government was certainly taken in. The Attorney-General decided, many years after, that Mrs. Madison was entitled to what she had retained, but we marvel at the blindness of the official who dealt with her. The real Madison letters were scattered at auction two years ago. There is only one series of letters to Madison in the Department calendar worthy of note—the noble series of Jefferson letters. Turning to Washington, we find *copies* of five or six letters. The originals of many (nearly four hundred) unusually long and interesting letters from Washington, Pendleton, Edmund Randolph, Joseph Jones, John Armstrong, and others were scattered at the sale just mentioned, and could have been purchased for one-half the sum paid for the collection obtained in 1837. In historical value there could be no comparison between the two lots, and yet the Government made no effort to secure the more valuable letters sold in 1891.

—Was it a consciousness of inferior goods that led to a marked falling off in this issue of the Bulletin? In size, it is the largest yet made—upwards of 740 pages. The type is old and much worn, making an indistinct impression. The proof-reading has been done hastily, and is not intelligent. It is a mistake to take an endorsed name as conclusive, and servilely follow manifest errors in printing a proper name. A calendar is a guide, and it should be so prepared that the writer of a letter can be readily identified, and, above all, correctly identified. Such a list becomes a book of reference; otherwise it is liable to mislead and confuse. Compared with the great calendars of the English records, these issues of the Department of State are very imperfect, and this No. 4 is most imperfect of all. Opening at random, we note a few of the errors. Richard *Blond* Lee is mentioned on page 464, *Richad Blond* Lee on p. 598, and Richard *Bland* Lee (correctly) on p. 693. Surely he was sufficiently prominent in his day to merit a proper record. Bossauge, p. 164, is correctly printed Bossange on p. 205. It is not difficult to recognize Epaphras under the misprint Epapheas (p. 175). A little care would have prevented so many differences in spelling names. Battaile and Battoile (p. 154), Ballman (p. 9) for Bollman, Gilmore (p. 28) and Gilmer (p. 320), Hurlbert (p. 32) and Hurlbut (p. 367), Hanson (p. 349) and Hansen (p. 505), Dufret (p. 274) for Dufief, are some that are easily recognized. The same negligence occurs in initials. A. C. Cazenove (p. 202) is A. Cazenove on p. 13. G. Cardelli (p. 187) becomes Antonio Cardelli (p. 12), P. S. Chazotte (p. 204) is Stephen Chazotti on p. 13, and Eben Huntington (p. 366) is made Eberd on p. 32. Dates easily determined are omitted, and some curious instances of unfamiliarity with the history of the times may be found. The long letter of Jay, on p. 377, could have been addressed only to Congress. The date of the resolution of Congress (p. 278) should have been found in the Journals. We hope to see an improvement in No. 5, as it is impossible to estimate too highly the general utility of these bulletins.

—The more that esoteric Japan and the "profound peace" prior to this half of the nineteenth century are studied, the more do Japanese history and human nature appear normal. Riots and turbulent outbreaks were common, and an irregular and intermittent lawlessness was particularly rife in times of famine. In studying this period, Prof. Garrett Droppers met with an interesting form of credit institution, which he has treated attractively and luminously in a paper read before the Asiatic Society of Japan, and printed in volume xxii. of its Transactions. The founder was Ninomiya Kinjiro (born July 23, 1787, died 1856). Though a farmer, he overcame the prejudices of caste, and, in the service of various daimios, was enabled to reduce sensibly the horrors of famine and to raise up lapsed and bankrupt districts to prosperity and abundance. Not as a religious, but as a sober social, reformer, who believed in the unalterable laws of nature, his system, which suited admirably the feudal framework of society, was based on the idea that "we are strong because of social wealth bequeathed to us by the virtue of our ancestors, our state, and our parents." He had no place in his system for the individualism which characterizes the Westerner and this nineteenth century. Briefly stated, the Hotokusha (Compensation-Gifts Association) aims to realize a true social life. It furnishes relief to the poor and orphans, rewards meritorious actions, improves customs and furthers social morality, reclaims waste land, promotes irrigation and plants forests, loans money and pays interest on deposits. In not a few respects, it resembles the Raiffeisen Loan Associations of Germany. The idea of profit or dividend is kept out, and the element of gratuitous service is emphasized. The paper gives interesting proofs of the good working of the plan, which, despite the changed conditions of the country,

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still accomplishes great good. Statistics showing 5,520 associations of all grades, with a total membership of 18,980, with capital, rice and grain stores, land, etc., are given. A bibliography for the Japanese-reading student is added, from which we learn that a monthly magazine to propagate Hotoku principles has been published in Tokio since 1892. The very existence of such a society, which loans money without demanding interest, and which does not invariably require security, is a strong proof of the excellent moral character of portions at least of the rural population of Japan.

MR. GOLDWIN SMITH'S TRANSLATIONS FROM THE GREEK TRAGEDIANS.—I.

Specimens of Greek Tragedy. Translated by Goldwin Smith, D.C.L. Æschylus and Sophocles; Euripides. 2 vols. Macmillan & Co.

It is natural for the English University man to recreate himself with versions from the classics; and it is inevitable that the recreations of Mr. Goldwin Smith should be neat and dexterous, and successful—not suggestive of slippers and dressing-gown and the otiosity of self-indulgent old age. Every educated Englishman of a type which we trust is not destined to pass away has a right to such diversions; and few have a better right to publish the results than Prof. Smith. They are a graceful offering at an old-fashioned shrine. We hear that the fashion is passing away even at Oxford, which is now beginning to claim the title of practical; and so Prof. Smith, not feeling quite sure that "Beauty is its own excuse for being," expresses a hope that his translation may be useful in Canada and other regions where Greek is vanishing from the academical course. In the United States it is our nature to refrain from classical versions and diversions, or to keep them locked up in our desks, far from the ungenial frown of the man of business and the man of science, and the piercing gaze of the strong young eagle that has fledged its wings in the technical schools. We are rather ashamed to confess such peccadillos to an unsympathetic public; across the water they are unblushingly displayed in high places and are regarded with an indulgent eye. Yet how frivolous are these relaxations of a Lord Derby or a Gladstone, compared with the serious and elegant leisure of our Platts and our Murphys and our Peffers.

Prof. Smith's venture consists of certain choice passages and scenes from Æschylus and Sophocles which make up a small octavo of about 250 pages, and another volume nearly as large culled from Euripides. He has chosen what he personally liked best. He steers clear of the choric odes almost completely, because he found them very hard material to deal with. "Their dithyrambic character, their high-flown language, strained metaphors, and frequent, perhaps studied obscurity, render it almost impossible to reproduce them in the forms of English poetry"; nay, perhaps, they do not contain much of "the material whereof modern poetry is made."

This formidable description will suggest to the imagination of the plain Englishman certain bogies from which he must thank the translator for a merciful deliverance. It is a description not altogether inapt when applied to some choruses of Æschylus, but strangely wide of the mark if meant for those of Sophocles and Euripides. Of these it would be nearer the truth to say that their lyric style, their highly poetic diction, the variety and beauty of their melody and rhythm, make it difficult, if not impossible, to represent or suggest their charms in English. We are not speaking now of a syllabic reproduction of the Greek metres, for this, as Mr. Auchmuty has lately shown in his "Œdipus at Colonus," can issue only in a literary curiosity. We mean a genuine English equivalent for the Greek rhythms and poetry. This would certainly be a task for great technical skill combined with high poetic genius; and genius, as a rule, scorns this kind of labor. If any one is inclined to think the task impossible, he may be checked at once by recalling Mr. Swinburne's "Atalanta in Calydon," and still more by the haunting memories of his music in "Astrophel." Dryden and Gray in their "Pindaric" odes gave only a slender suggestion of that complex and varied harmony of movement which in the Greek choral ode veers and shifts with every changing breath of thought and sentiment and passion. But Mr. Swinburne can truly say of this very problem, "Solvitur ambulando." The author of "Astrophel" has shown that he can do what he likes with the English language, and make its rugged vocables dance to any tune he pleases. He could undoubtedly achieve the task which Mr. Smith, with commendable taste and caution, avoids. But he naturally prefers to set his own thoughts to his own music.

There is a good reason why the choral odes should, if possible, be reproduced for any foreign reader, namely, that they are an essential part of the total impression of the drama, and essential, therefore, to a clear apprehension of Greek dramatic art. They are often described as "the libretto of a chant"; Mr. Smith uses this comparison, adding that they must have "owed much to the melody and the movement of the dance." How much they owed to the music we have some means of judging from that skeleton of melody lately unearthed at Delphi. If we do not go so far as to say with Prof. Mahaffy that the Greeks were sorry composers, we shall at any rate agree that airs such as this, with all their exotic charm, served only as a slender and brilliant frame for the poetic picture of the words, setting them off certainly but never rivalling or eclipsing them, as the harmonies of an opera extinguish the libretto. In the opera and the oratorio the score is intended to eclipse the libretto; in the Greek representation, the poetry was first and foremost, the music was purely ancillary and subordinate.

We may repeat, then, that the odes are essential not merely as a record of the development of the drama, but as a matter of poetic art. They are often intended to create the mood of the spectator, to supply him with allusive information, to suggest or furnish contrasts or subtle harmonies with the situation that is unfolded in the dialogue. In Sophocles and Æschylus they are generally as necessary and inevitable as the pieces of mosaic in a picture; in Euripides they are more like the jewels worn by a beautiful woman—brilliant but casual and detachable. Yet even with Euripides, it would often be truer to say that they beget the mood, the ethereal atmosphere of emotion and sentiment, through which the spectator is to regard the action of the play.

If asked to name the most adequate bit of work in these volumes, we should lay our finger on that ingenious piece of special pleading between *Creon* and his son in the "Antigone," in which Sophocles, without forgetting his poetry, turns for awhile his audience into a court of law. The finesse and dexterity of this encounter are very much in Mr. Smith's line; and so is the "stichomythia" in which it issues—the flash and gleam, the cut and thrust and parry of responsive single lines, so dear to the Greek heart, and so alien, we may add, to the genuine English drama—so alien, indeed, that FitzGerald felt obliged to renounce it almost entirely. It is, however, an artifice well suited to Mr. Smith's epigrammatic faculty. Epigrammatic felicities are his peculiar gift and property. One might cull a very pretty garland of these from either of the volumes. For example, *Ismene's* warning to her sister:

"Hot is thy blood, but chill thy enterprise";

and again:

"High-vaulting virtue overleaps itself";

or this from *Heracles* to *Admetus*:

"Time will bring balm; thy wound as yet is green";

or the messenger's word to *Œdipus*:

"Thy name is thy misfortune's monument";

or the wish of *Hippolytus*:

"Ne'er may wife of mine
Be wiser than consorts with womanhood";

or this bit of skilful simplicity from a parting scene:

"*Polyxena*: 'Mother, farewell; Cassandra, fare thee well.'
Hecuba: 'Farewell who may; ill must thy mother fare.'"

Side by side with the discussion in the "Antigone," we should place the sonorous and eloquent defiance of *Prometheus*, and such speeches as the final address of *Athene* in the "Choëphoræ," where in point, vigor, and neatness Mr. Smith's version has the advantage even of Mr. Morshead's. We spare room for a few spirited and characteristic lines in which *Prometheus* reproaches the chorus for their submissiveness, and announces the approach of *Hermes* bearing an ultimatum from *Zeus*:

"Cringe, if thou wilt, sue, bend the knee to power.
Little reck I of Zeus. Then let him work
His tyrant will for his allotted span:
Not long shall he be monarch of the gods.
But lo, the Almighty's beachman I behold,
That errands bears for this new dynasty;
His lackeyship must some new fiat bring."

The same felicity, with rarer qualities, characterizes the recognition scene between *Iphigenia* and her brother, and the touching passage, of legendary fame, in which *Electra*, beside the urn which she supposes to contain her brother's ashes, deplores his death and her own unfriended lot. Some lines in this go straight to one's heart:

"Strange hands those rites performed, and thou art here
A little dust clipt in a narrow urn."

And again:

"Receive me now in that abode of thine,
That, *dust to dust*, I may abide with thee"—

which is so neat that we hardly venture to hint its inadequacy for τὴν μηδὲν εἰς τὸ μηδέν.

There are, however, inequalities in Mr. Smith's performance. He has his moods, and in some he can be prosaic, or suddenly lapse into prose. This may happen anywhere; but the long narratives of Euripides are perhaps the most trying ordeals. Euripides, if never downright prosy, often treads on the verge, in that even, pedestrian style by which he prepared the way for Menander. This level, easy manner, which reaches no great height of inspiration, and yet seldom if ever sinks to bald prose, is a test for an artist like Shelley—a test which he bears so winningly in the "Cyclops." It is a perilous undertaking to tell how "We were engaged in dressing down the steeds," or, of *Jason's* bride, that "Scarce her seat received her fainting form," and "What followed was appalling to behold," or, "A fearful struggle then ensued," without trans-

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gressing into commonplace. The sentiment of *Menœcius*,

> "If each man freely would expend his store
> For the promotion of the common weal,
> Our states, from many a present evil free,
> Would see before them times of happiness,"

is honest, sensible prose, slightly disguised in the form of verse. Euripides is not entirely responsible for this, for in other passages our translator shows himself willing to part with a metaphor, or with a touch of color, which warms and vivifies the original. *Medea's* declaration, "My hand I will not weaken," is rendered, "My purpose is unchanged"; "The mistress whom we flatter in thy place" becomes "She who is now our mistress in thy place"; and the "dazzling white foot" of the bride (παλλεύκῳ ποδί) disappears in the descriptive line, "Paced gayly to and fro with dainty steps." These are certainly slight matters and not worth mentioning if they were isolated; our reason for mentioning them at all is that they reveal a tendency which is almost a trait.

On the whole, however, these versions must be pronounced a brilliant success in a field where Mr. Smith is, in some sense, only an amateur. We have lately had many good renderings of masterpieces done into prose; we have, for example, not to mention well-known English works, Prof. Palmer's 'Odyssey' and Mr. Norton's Dante—renderings so dexterous, so delicately close and true, so exquisite in literary quality, that they offer some of the charms of verse, and a fidelity in certain ways which verse can hardly approach. We have been told, in fact, lately, that this is the only safe way to translate poetry; that renderings in verse must of necessity be paraphrases, and must offend the modern scientific craving for accuracy. But, as Mr. Smith truly says, "Prose can never be an equivalent for poetry; therefore, we must run the risks of a translation in verse"; and as FitzGerald said of the "Agamemnon," "This grand play, which to the scholar and the poet lives, breathes, and moves in the dead language, has hitherto seemed to me to drag and stifle under conscientious translation into the living." If we ask Mr. Smith under what conditions we must make our experiment in verse, he replies, "We must translate as far as possible line for line; otherwise, in Greek, we lose the form and balance which are of the essence of Greek art"; and, as a matter of fact, he has generally bound himself by this rule. Here we encounter at the outset a difference of theory between two translators who agree in making the experiment of verse; and it may be worth our while to examine the results of each process.

THE TSIMSIÁN LANGUAGE.

Die Sprache der Zimshian-Indianer in Nordwest-America. Von Dr. A. C. Graf von der Schulenburg. Braunschweig: Rich. Sattler; New York: G. E. Stechert. 1894. Quarto, pp. 24 and 372.

THIS large and typographically well-executed work deals with an Indian language which is spoken in two dialects by an interesting people of well-nigh 6,000 souls, resident upon the coast of British Columbia. The Tsimsián are subdivided into fifteen clans, and dwell in about as many compactly built villages along the seashore and along the lower course of the Nass and the Skeena Rivers. They are known to us under the name of one of their villages, Tsimsián, a name interpreted by "on the Ksián," *i. e.*, "upon the Skeena River." The littoral slopes from Vancouver Island up to the Alaskan border are intersected by a large number of fjords, which give ample protection to the enormous number of fish found there. Fishing is the main support of the Tsimsián Indians, who at the beginning of the fishing season desert their winter villages en masse and start for the fishing-camps.

Many of their customs testify to the archaic state of their civil institutions. Children inherit from the mother; the aboriginal totemic clan-system still prevails in full force in spite of long intercourse with the white race. There is, if observers have judged correctly, a middle class distinctly separated by customary law from the commoners, and still more so from the leading class, so that instances are rare in which individuals of the two popular classes have succeeded in making their way into the "upper crust." This implies an hereditary caste, which is seldom observed in Indian communities. The "religions" of the Tsimsián, or rather their ceremonial clubs or societies, are four in number; one of them is named "the dog-eaters," another "cannibals." Their chief deity is the sky, *laká*; subordinate to it are the celestial bodies, as sun and moon, mysterious beings beneficial to mankind (*neknók*). They are the mediators between heaven and man.

Attempts were made over twenty years ago to Christianize these people. In 1886 their missionary, William Duncan, removed about one thousand Tsimsián Indians to Annette Island, that they might remain free from corrupting influences, made their town, New Methlakathla, a centre of civilization by erecting a schoolhouse, a marketplace, a hall for meetings, a gospel and law building, and a house for lodging Indian visitors. To engraft the true principle of culture, he endeavored to make them active and industrious workers and producers, established manufactures of soap, rope, woollens, and shoes, the products of which are carried to the international market at Victoria, B. C., at stated intervals, by a schooner especially built for their use. The fact that these Indians find an immediate reward for their industrial exertions gives them a stimulus very different from that furnished by the dull agricultural work going on upon the Indian reservations in the United States.

The principal source of the above ethnography has been the English and German publications of the explorer Dr. Franz Boas of Minden, who was also the Count's chief authority for the Tsimsián grammar. The four Gospels, translated by Protestant missionaries into Tsimsián, furnished data for the grammar, and especially for the lexicon of about 2,800 words, which will be found at the close of the volume. In dedicating the work to his uncle, the deceased linguist Georg von der Gabelentz, Count von der Schulenburg pays a glowing tribute to his merits and achievements. His helping hand is discernible not only in particular statements, but in the plan of the whole work, which is probably due to his teachings. Another grammatical treatise on the same coast language, as yet unpublished, is that of Wm. Ridley, bishop of Caledonia. When its contents are arranged more scientifically and appear in print, linguists will have an abundance of material at their disposal.

Tsimsián forms a linguistic family by itself. Its phonetics are rather simple, and the words are by no means so jaw-breaking as those of the Selish and Kwakiutl dialects adjacent on the south. Words terminate mostly in consonants, and some vowels have an indistinct pronunciation, as in English, but are not nasalized. A tendency towards assibilation is perceptible; guttural consonants are numerous, but labials and dentals are not, and surd explosive sounds are largely in excess of sonant explosives. Consonantic accumulations are observed chiefly at the *end* of words. The principal parts of speech, nouns and verbs, are but imperfectly distinguished from each other. What we call a verb in European languages is in Tsimsián a noun-verb, or, more properly, a noun qualified by a pronoun, which, according to the context, has to be construed either as a personal or as a possessive pronoun. Dr. Boas states that the independent form of the possessive pronoun is identical with the nominative of the personal pronoun. This implies that the expressions *I speak* and *my word* have to be rendered by the same term in Tsimsián. This structure of the sentence is common to many American languages, and prevails, for example, throughout the whole Algonkin family. In the verb there are three main tenses, and some subsidiary tense forms, all expressed by temporal particles and not by verbal affixes, as with us. But the tense-particles of the main tenses are used also in inflecting the noun, and, moreover, the pronouns, as *you*, *we*, *yours*, *ours*, are inflected for tense also. There is no substantive verb *to be* which can be used as a copula; but our verb *to be* is often replaced by verbs approximating the above function and defining *space* rather than anything else—to stay, to remain within, to be in a certain medium, to be so and so, to have, to do. Where the verb *to be* is intended to mean real and not casual existence, the position of the words in the phrase or sentence will indicate it. Temporal particles qualifying a verb stand before it; when qualifying a noun, after it.

Marking absence and presence is a very important object in this and in many other Indian languages. When the verb is in the third person, the article *da* or *dada* has to be added to the noun when presence of subject or object is implied; *ga* or *gaga*, when absence (local or temporal) has to be indicated. The sense of localization and distance from the speaker is much stronger in Indian speech than that of temporal, causal, or any other relation. In some categories, as in the attributive relation, prefixion is the rule. Thus, the adverb stands before the verb and not after it, and the adjective used attributively precedes the substantive it qualifies. Derivation of words, when material and not logical relations are implied, is effected by prefixes, and the same prefixes form verbs and nouns indiscriminately. Personal and modal inflection is performed by suffixes. Plurals of nouns and plurals of verbs are formed in precisely the same manner, and reduplication enters largely into the formation of both. When the object of a transitive verb stands in the plural, the verb assumes the plural form also, no matter whether the subject of the sentence is singular or plural.

Numerals are a fair example of what Indians can achieve in linguistic specializing. The Tsimsián counting system is quinary-vigesimal, and the numerals are rather short when not lengthened by affixes. Cardinals and ordinals assume no less than seven different forms intended as classifiers, describing the shape of the objects counted. One series serves to count when no definite object is referred to. The second counts flat objects and animals, the third round objects and divisions of time, perhaps because the sun and the moon, measures of time, have a round shape. The adverbial numeral is also expressed by this third series. Another or fourth series is em-

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ployed to count persons, another objects of long shape, another canoes, another lineal measures. Most of these forms are made by suffixion; so large a number is unparalleled in any other tongue, though many languages express as many or more classes by the addition of separate words.

Count v. d. Schulenburg has shown much assiduity in gathering a large number of texts with German translation, and if the quotations from the New Testament are in good Tsimsián, the collection may be trusted to afford sterling material for study. But translations of foreign ideas are never so valuable for linguistics as are aboriginal mythologic, ethnographic, and historic texts. Count v. d. Schulenburg was doubtless aware of this, and therefore inserted among his specimens several native productions, accompanied by an interlinear German translation. These specimens consist of a satiric song, three native prayers, an historic text referring to Inverness, B. C., and two mythologic pieces —in all thirteen pages, contributed by Dr. Franz Boas. Throughout, the Count avails himself of *two* systems for the notation of Tsimsián, viz., that of Dr. Boas and that of the Gospel translations. This is an almost irremediable mistake, for the differences are at times very considerable, especially in the vowel elements. That the Count never visited this part of the Pacific Coast in person becomes evident at the first glance, and in respect to phonetics he follows the statements of his authorities rather closely, and is never definite as to certain uncommon sounds of the language. The sign *lth* should not be adopted to mark the palatalized sound *l*. His statement that the suffix *th* serves to designate what is "definite" and "exclusive" cannot possibly be made out from the sentences given by him. His examples are sometimes too abundant, sometimes too scanty; the display of them in grammatic categories makes of his book a useful collection of phrases and sentences for grammatic uses, but it cannot be properly called *a grammar*. His own infrequent remarks cannot be regarded as establishing grammatic laws or rules. His classification of the forms of the plural is neither complete nor logical, and his remarks about conjunctions, particles, etc., are a rude jumble. The vocabulary is rich, but consultation of it is rendered difficult by the missionary practice of entering derivatives under their respective roots. For instance, *gumgaud*, to bless, must be sought under *gaud*, heart, sense. Only a few attempts are made in the Dictionary to point out the etymology of the words quoted.

Scientific interest in the Northwestern languages is awakening; we have already monographs on the Eskimo, Tlingit, Haida, Tinné, Niskwali and Klamath, and considerable lexical work has been done for Nez-Percé and for a dialect of Vancouver Island. The main desideratum is native texts describing tribal history, customs, and myths, correctly worded, explained, and commented upon. The Rev. A. G. Morice has done excellent work for three dialects of Tinné spoken in the upper parts of the Fraser River valley, and an annual report of the Bureau of Ethnology will soon bring Lower Chinook texts, gathered from the last living representatives found at the mouth of the Columbia River, by Dr. Franz Boas.

TWO NOVELS.

Poor Folk. By F. Dostoyevsky. Translated from the Russian by Lena Milman. London: Elkin Mathews & John Lane; Boston: Roberts Brothers.

Lourdes. Par Émile Zola. Paris: Charpentier; New York: Dyrsen & Pfeiffer, B. Westermann & Co., and Brentanos.

It is interesting, in connection with this translation of Dostoyevsky's famous story, 'Poor Folk,' to recall briefly the circumstances of its first reading. Dostoyevsky, a young man, twenty-three years of age, had completed his course in the Engineers' Institute, and had entered the Government service, like his fellow-graduates. His dislike of this occupation led him, at the end of a year, to abandon it. He had no definite reason or plan of life, but was inspired to write 'Poor Folk.' His only literary acquaintance was Grigorovitch, who had published but one article at that time; and to him he gave his manuscript, that it might be shown to the poet Nekrasoff, who was making arrangements to print a periodical. Having given Grigorovitch his story, he spent the night with several friends rereading Gogol's 'Dead Souls.' It was the custom of the period for students to read and reread Gogol for the dozenth time whenever two or three chanced to meet of an evening. Returning home at four o'clock in the morning, in the brilliant daylight of a "white night" in June, Dostoyevsky sat down by his window, instead of going to bed, and was speedily summoned to the door by the ringing of the bell. Grigorovitch and Nekrasoff, unable to restrain their enthusiasm, had come to congratulate him on his work. Having begun with the idea that the perusal of ten pages would enable them to reach an opinion, they had been led on by interest and emotion to read the whole book aloud, and had taken turns as the voice of each failed. Nekrasoff's voice, they told him, had broken twice with uncontrollable feeling, as he read the description of the poor student's funeral. The next day Nekrasoff announced to the celebrated critic Byelinsky that "a new Gogol" had arisen. "Your Gogols spring up like mushrooms!" retorted Byelinsky; but by the evening, after reading the story, he was as much excited as Nekrasoff, and demanded that the new author be brought to him at once. 'Poor Folk' was published the next year, 1846.

As we read the simple, intensely pathetic story, told indirectly but with transparent lucidity in the letters of Mákar and Varvara, we cannot but share the feelings of the Russian readers and critics of half a century ago. The most elaborate attempt to depict squalid, hopeless poverty; the patient endurance of a wronged, ailing young girl; the kind heart, weak will, and magnificent unselfishness of a broken-down, witless old Government clerk, would be hopeless beside the power of this narrative contained in a series of letters so full of true art that their inherent artificiality never once occurs to the enthralled reader. Old Mákar Dyevushkin can watch the window of his distant relative, Varvara Dobroseloff, across the inner courtyard of one of those teeming tenement-houses whose dirt, discomforts, and queer occupants are lightly but surely described, touch by touch, in Mákar's attempts to convince Varvara that he is perfectly comfortable and undergoing no deprivations for the sake of supporting her. He rarely visits her, fearing that gossip will attack her, and that the world will not understand the pure and disinterested motives which impel him, wretchedly poor and addicted to drink, to starve and suffer in order that he may keep life in the poor young orphan girl, whose relationship to him is of the most distant sort, practically non-existent. As the ingenuous correspondence, which takes the place of the inadvisable visits, proceeds, we penetrate the innermost recesses of these two hearts and characters, and of the hearts and characters of all the persons who are mentioned as side issues. At last Varvara marries the rich man who has wronged her in the past, and the story ends with a heart-broken wail from the old clerk who has loved her so faithfully and so disinterestedly. Where all is so perfect, it is hard to single out any passage for special admiration; but the episode, in Varvara's sketch of her life, of the student Pokrosky's funeral, followed only by his loving but degraded old father, is one of the gems of literature. It must be read to be even imagined.

The translation is delightful reading; the language is easy and elegant. But it certainly was not made direct from the Russian, and was made by a person who was ignorant of Russian localities and customs. The use of the German *j* (Djevuschkin, Jermolaev, Jermak) to represent the sound of *i*, or *y*, and the occasional rendering of the name Yemelyan as Emilius, and Aksentiy as Accentius, would seem to indicate that the German version served as original. The use of *child* in circumstances where the French would use *mon enfant*, of Eustace in place of Yevstafiy, and the manner in which the brief, forcible Russian sentences are rearranged or combined, are strongly suggestive of a French original, instead of the Russian. The translator's lack of practical knowledge of Russian leads to a loss of character. On page 5, Mákar writes of getting settled in his new lodging: "I have a bed, a table, a chest of drawers, *and some sort of curtains*." "I have hung up my saint's picture" is the national touch which Dostoyevsky wrote in place of the characterless phrase which we have italicized. "First vespers," instead of "all night" (vesper) service, is in the same category. Varvara tells how her family came from the country to live "in the neighborhood of Petersburg," and how they left that place for the "province of Vasiliev," and thanks Mákar for taking her to "walk on the island." It should read that they came to the "Petersburg quarter" (or ward) of the capital and removed to the quarter known as Vasily Island, and that Mákar treated her to the (for them) expensive luxury of a drive to "the islands," whither their weak health would certainly have prevented their walking as stated. Even people who are well never walk thither. "The cemetery at Volkovo" should read, "the Volkhoff cemetery." Several times the "Nevsky" (Prospekt), which runs at right angles to the Neva River, is mistaken for the river, and rendered, "the banks of the Neva," "by the Neva," "whether he lived on the Neva or on the quay." "On the Neva" means on the Nevsky Prospekt, and "on the quay" means on the Neva bank. "A money-lender who lives in Viborsko" should read, "who lives in the Viborg quarter" (of St. Petersburg). The word appears again, "I crossed Vibortski."

Instances of direct misunderstanding of the text are not rare. For example: "They punished me by making me take my meals in solitude," instead of "by giving me only one article of food." "I saw that he looked on me as his last hope, as it were, for he was engaged in a struggle, God only knows with whom," instead of "He spent his last penny on me, and struggled along himself, God only knows how." "*My old lodging was no better than this one*; it was but fairly comfortable," instead of, "To tell the truth, my old lodging was incomparably better than this one; it was more comfortable." "Why should I expect to have time for rest?" instead of "Why should we make a fuss?" "Coarse knitting-pins,"

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instead of "yard-long knitting-pins." "It is her turn to suffer now," instead of "She will go to destruction." "The new wife turned everything in the house topsy-turvy; there was no living in it, and, moreover, she squandered all the money," instead of "She established her authority over all of them, and there was no living with her." "They change their governess every two years," instead of "This is the third governess they have had in two years." "Watergruel," instead of "Boiled buckwheat groats without butter." "But Sneguev, the porter, said I must not, for I should soil the brush, and the brush was a gentleman in Government employ," instead of "Snegireff . . . said, 'The brush, sir, belongs to the Government.'" A locksmith's apprentice is described as clad in a "stripped calatch," instead of "a striped kalat"; a calatch being a peculiar sort of wheaten roll, and a kalat, a long, loose coat, like a dressing-gown. Varvara's order that her handkerchiefs shall be marked "with tambour work, not with laid work," is translated, "On a frame, not in plain marking"—that is, evidently, not with pen and ink. The name Feodor is sometimes left in its Russian form, sometimes translated Theodore, which might indicate either a French or a German original; while the passage quoted from Ratazaev's absurd novel might have been mistranslated from any language but Russian. "Thou, my guiding star, hast led me so far, and for this even to the Stony Circle," should read "beyond the Belt of Stone"—that is to say, the Ural Mountains, which would have been appropriate to a Siberian love tale like that here referred to.

Mr. George Moore has furnished a very thoughtful and cleverly worded preface, which no reader of Dostoyevsky's story and no lover of Russian literature should fail to read.

Dulness itself is Zola's latest "novel," if such a name can be given to 'Lourdes.' There is no story whatever in the six hundred closely printed pages, for the ethereal loves of Pierre and Marie are so tenuous as to leave the reader absolutely cold. Zola is incapable of treating delicate sentiments; he neither feels nor recognizes them. His coarse, heavy touch crushes whatever is tender; his filthy imagination befouls whatever is pure. So there is no pleasure, no interest in the thin plot—so thin that it vanishes early. But one can do without plot nowadays, so many novelists and essayists and theorists have proclaimed that a story without a story, a bare, flabby, soulless thing, is the only true reproduction of life; so many authors have applied that doctrine and given us dialect instead of character, dreariness instead of excitement; therefore no one dreams of complaining of lack of plot in 'Lourdes.' But Zola has written some powerful passages in other days; the conflict of strikers and troops in 'Germinal,' the doing to death of the old man in 'La Terre,' the Weiss episode in 'La Débâcle' are examples that instantly recur to the memory. There is not one, absolutely not one, in 'Lourdes.' It is dull and dreary from beginning to end. Not the hospital train, conveying its load of horrors and miseries and credulities; not the torchlight procession of the numberless pilgrims; not the ecstasy of Marie followed by the supposed miracle, once inspires Zola to write with an approach to his old-time vigor. The repulsive diseases, the hideous wounds, the incurable sores, the putrescent horrors which the Virgin is expected to cure, are described with all the prosiness of detail and nauseating fulness which are naturally looked for from him; but out of this he has failed to evoke the powerful sensation of oppression, of horror, which alone could justify the catalogue. His characters are weak, shadowy, lacking consistence. Pierre, the unbelieving priest; Marie, the ecstatic girl, leave the faintest of impressions on the mind. The reader does not realize the wild fanaticism of credulous hope and superstitious belief which makes these thousands of sufferers abdicate the use of common sense and crowd to the spring from which their despair expects healing. The author has failed to penetrate the peculiar phase of mysticism which is exemplified in these strange pilgrimages, and it is not to be wondered at that Roman Catholics should feel angered; other believers and unbelievers alike merely feel bored. It does not really matter to them whether miracles are or are not wrought at Lourdes; all they know is that Zola's book is a painfully heavy report, badly digested, badly written, upon a generally sickening subject; all they wonder at is that a man of talent can deliberately perpetrate such a stupidity; all they enjoy is the thought that the numerous admirers of Zola's pornography will be bitterly disappointed also.

Songs, Poems, and Verses. By Helen Lady Dufferin (Countess of Gifford). Edited, with a Memoir and some Account of the Sheridan Family, by her son, the Marquess of Dufferin and Ava. London: John Murray. 1894.

Lord Dufferin, in his preface to this volume, promises that he will give a more detailed account of his mother's life with a selection from her letters. This promise will, we hope, be shortly carried into effect, for the letters of so remarkable a woman must be of great interest. Lady Dufferin was the daughter of Thomas Sheridan, and the granddaughter of Richard Brinsley Sheridan. Of the latter, Lord Dufferin says that the Life yet remains to be written, and that hitherto "no famous man has been more unfortunate in his biographers." He considers that Brinsley Sheridan derived from his mother, who was Miss Chamberlaine before her marriage, "the divine spark which converted the mere talents he may be supposed to have inherited from his father into the genius which made him famous." Mrs. Sheridan wrote two novels and two plays. One of the novels, 'Nourjahad,' was praised by both Mr. Fox and Lord North. Mrs. Sheridan's play "The Discovery" was a favorite with Garrick, and when Brinsley Sheridan's play of "The Rivals" was running at Covent Garden, Garrick was acting in "The Discovery" at Drury Lane; so that, to quote Lord Dufferin's words, "two pieces, by the mother and the son, were being acted at the same moment at the two great London theatres." He adds (p. 17):

"Sheridan opposed the war with America; he deprecated the coalition between Fox and North; he advocated the abolition of slavery; he denounced the tyranny of Warren Hastings; he condemned the trade restrictions on Ireland; he fought for Catholic emancipation; he did his best to save the French royal family. He was also in favor of an eight-hours day."

Sheridan married Miss Linley, the daughter of a musician at Bath. Her beauty is preserved in her portraits by Romney, Gainsborough, and Reynolds. Lord Dufferin says that "one bishop called her the connecting link between a woman and an angel; and another said that to look at her when singing was like looking into the face of a seraph." Reynolds painted her as Saint Cecilia, and he introduced her portrait in his figure of Charity in the painted window of New College Chapel at Oxford. Thomas Sheridan, the father of Lady Dufferin, married Miss Callander, who was as remarkable for her "firm character and abiding sense of duty" as she was for her beauty. Lord Dufferin gives this anecdote of his grandfather: "One day his father, remonstrating with him in reference to some matter, exclaimed, 'Why, Tom, my father would never have permitted me to do such a thing!' 'Sir,' said his son in a tone of the greatest indignation, 'do you presume to compare *your* father to *my* father?'" From the Sheridans Lady Dufferin inherited wit, humor, and gayety. Lord Dufferin says: "The Sheridans, though they fell afterwards upon evil days, were originally an ancient, affluent, and important family," possessing "the Sheridan Country" in the County Cavan. He attributes their "continuous intellectual activity" to the persecutions of Fate which beset them for two hundred years. Literary ability appeared in every branch of the family. A great-nephew of Richard Brinsley Sheridan, Joseph Sheridan Le Fanu, when a child, wrote in a few lines an "Essay on the Life of Man," which ran as follows (p. 22):

"A man's life naturally divides itself into three distinct parts: the first when he is planning and contriving all kinds of villany and rascality. *That is the period of youth and innocence.* In the second, he is found putting in practice all the villany and rascality he has contrived. *That is the flower of manhood and prime of life.* The third and last period is that when he is making his soul and preparing for another world. *That is the period of dotage.*"

Lady Dufferin was one of a family of three daughters and four sons, all remarkable for beauty and talent. Her sisters were the Duchess of Somerset (the Queen of Beauty at the Eglinton Tournament) and Mrs. Norton, whose novels and poems are well known. When very young, she married Commander Blackwood, R.N., afterwards fourth Lord Dufferin and Clandeboye. Her only child, the present Marquess of Dufferin, was born in Italy a year after her marriage, and to her husband and her son Lady Dufferin devoted the whole force of her affectionate nature. The best of her verses were addressed to them.

Some of Lady Dufferin's songs, such as "The Irish Emigrant" and "The Bay of Dublin," are known all over the world. She was acquainted with nearly all the distinguished writers of her time, including Lord Beaconsfield. Her acquaintance with the elder Disraeli was delayed, owing to a quarrel between the father and son, but at length they arrived together, and Lord Beaconsfield, "setting his father down on a chair and looking at him as if he were some object of *vertu* of which he wanted to dispose, . . . said, 'Mrs. Blackwood, I have brought you my father. I have become reconciled to my father on two conditions: the first was that he should come to see *you*—the second, that he should pay my debts'" (p. 59).

In 1862, just at the time of her son's marriage, Lady Dufferin married the Earl of Gifford, the eldest son of the Marquess of Tweeddale. Lord Gifford, who was many years younger than Lady Dufferin, had been devoted to her from a boy; he was now dying, and she consented to the marriage in order that she might devote herself to his comfort and relief. Two months afterwards he died. A few years later she was attacked with cancer. An operation gave her hope of a cure, and for a short time she seemed more than

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ever "filled with the delight of living." But the disease soon returned, and her one desire was to conceal from her son her own conviction that the symptoms were fatal. She would not speak to him of her condition, but she wrote a diary for him to read after her death, in which she poured forth her feelings. The following passage relates to her departure from Clandeboye, when the return of her illness had just been discovered (p. 99):

"That last day at Clandeboye was full of sweet and bitter thoughts to me. I walked round the lake and took leave of all the old (and new) places. I sat upon the fallen tree at 'the mother's seat,' and looked long at the Tower. . . . May all those objects be pleasant memories to you. I had a poignant thought of regret in thinking I should see them no more (at least with my earthly eyes), for I have occasional happy fancies of some sort of spiritual presence with those we love that may be permitted after death, and, if so, how continually I shall be with my darling—alone or in company—in your walks or by your fireside—the fervor of my love, my blessing, my whole soul will surely encompass you."

Six months later, in June, 1867, Lady Dufferin died.

The Ethics of Hegel: Translated Selections from his 'Rechtsphilosophie.' With an Introduction. By J. Macbride Sterrett, D.D., Professor of Philosophy in the Columbian University, Washington, D. C. Boston: Ginn & Co.

MORAL philosophy is itself exposed to two opposite moral maladies, for ethical research begins only after we find we are already practically committed to moral positions. If, then, in this research, honesty, benevolence, courage, decency are to be seriously called in question and submitted to debate, how will it comport with any man's social obligations to take part in the examination? If, on the other hand, the investigation means less than that, what is it, after all, but a white-washing commission, a merely formal inquiry arranged to reach a foregone conclusion? Logicians may squirm in between the horns of this dilemma; but certain it is that they indicate two real, two reallest, dangers that beset the student of ethics.

One cannot well deny that Hegel sins in the latter of these ways. He tips us the wink at the beginning of each of his books, to let us know that he is all right. His personal history shows the same thing. His philosophy had to square itself with the Lutheran Church, under penalty of not being adopted as the Prussian philosophy of state. All the right wing of the school (who were the most consistent of the Hegelians) struggle to make it appear that Hegelianism is eminently Christian; and it is true that Hegelianism is, in some points, in striking accord with the sort of metaphysics which prevailed in the ages that formed the creed, and, further, that the precepts of the Gospel, as softened by modern glosses, are not without some resemblance to Hegelian ideas of the conduct of life. But that is all. Nor does the second malady protect Hegelian ethics from the first. For, after having immorally pledged himself not to disturb Christian ideas, Hegel betrays his confiding disciple in this respect. Christianity, namely, purporting to be based on historical facts and personal experiences, demands unquestioning fidelity to certain *sentiments*, while Hegelianism is one of the least sentimental of doctrines, and, whatever sentiments it may approve, approves as a part of a system with a singularly raw and chilly approval. In short, Hegelianism has too much Hegel in it to be in any hearty accord with the spirit of Christ. It would perhaps be too much to demand that, in rising from the perusal of a treatise on morals, we should find ourselves spiritually nourished. Certainly, the 'Rechtsphilosophie' is a repast of bran.

The book of selections before us is by a Christian minister, and is intended to impart to college undergraduates such slender notion of the Hegelian ethics as is consistent with their acquainting themselves with all the other principal ethical theories in the limited time and with the immature powers they can bring to that study which, beyond all others, calls for wisdom and for rumination. Whether under the circumstances the author accomplishes what was to be expected of him is a question that must be answered in the light of the above considerations. Dr. Sterrett appears to be, among that little company of thinkers who have been swept out of the mid-stream of the world's thought and caught in the side-eddy of Hegelianism—all of them having narrow enough horizons—the one whose discipleship is the most slavish. Such a worship is unjust to Hegel—it is almost a libel upon him, because Hegel would be the first to perceive, if he were here to-day, that the logic of history had weighed his system in the balance and found it wanting.

How ethics ought to be taught depends very much upon whether it is to be made one of the earliest studies of the college curriculum or one of the latest. It is to be presumed that such works as compose Prof. Sneath's "Ethical Series," of which this volume is the second number, are to be studied in the last year. The student will, therefore, already have heard something about the Hegelian philosophy and have had a dip into the Hegelian logic. With such preparation, the exposition of Hegel's ethics here given by Dr. Sterrett ought to be intelligible enough, and will enable the student to gain an *unreflective* acquaintance with that system in some detail. Without previous information, the student would be at sea.

About two-thirds of the volume is taken up with extracts from the 'Rechtsphilosophie,' accurately and well translated, and an abstract of the introduction to the work. The other third supplies bibliography, biography, exposition, and comparison with *previous* systems. The idea of the series seems to be that, since Hegel, nothing of any importance has been written about ethics, for we are told it "at present will include six volumes" on Hobbes, Clarke, Locke, Hume, Kant, Hegel. A college student who should be led to believe that in studying these writers he was studying what was most important in the history of ethics, would, we need not say, be duped.

On Short Leave to Japan. By Capt. G. I. Younghusband: Sampson Low, Marston & Co.

THIS British officer, of whom we have heard in Mantchuria and Burmah, presents as the apology for his hardihood in inflicting "yet another book on Japan," that "the latest news of so interesting a country may not be altogether unacceptable." The fresh news he offers is almost wholly in the seventeenth and final chapter, in which he describes, from some actual observations, the army of Japan. He travelled over the beaten tracks, and relies on Chamberlain's 'Things Japanese' and the same author's 'Murray's Hand-Book,' with Mitford's 'Tales of Old Japan,' for perspective and information. He serves up the familiar jokes, Anglican criticisms on Americans, and commonplace reflections upon things which have been described, almost monthly, in book-publications in some European language since 1875. The penultimate chapter will be of interest to Englishmen at home or in India, because of its detail of expenses and hints on travel in the islands.

In the chapter on the Japanese army we have, not an echo, but a clear tone, and the judgment of this military expert is of special value at this time. Under the system of universal conscription in vogue for over eighteen years past, service with the colors is for three years, then nine years in the reserve, and then a last resting-place in the territorial army till the day of final absolution from military service. The age of conscription is from seventeen to forty. The Japanese army now numbers 228,848 men of all arms, or 113,229 in the reserve and 53,187 in the territorial division. The peace strength, therefore, is 56,589, and this, the author thinks, "is the number that may be calculated upon as available for extra-territorial campaigns." Naturally the short-legged Japanese are compared with the Goorkas of the Indian army. The author praises the cleanliness of the barracks and the wholesomeness of the rations. He goes into enough detail of rank and pay, rate of promotion, etc., to give one a good idea of the *morale* of the force, which seems to be excellent. In describing the Murata rifle, the author must have had before him one of the non-repeaters, for the standard arm is a magazine gun carrying ten cartridges. With the infantry drill and bayonet exercise he was well pleased, but, like almost every foreign critic, he has only strictures for the cavalry. Organic causes enable the Japanese to be a better foot-soldier than cavalryman. "Equitation, many maintain, is an inherited quality. Generations of riders beget sons with legs long in proportion to their bodies, and so formed as to fit readily to the horse's back." Added to the thick thighs and short legs of the Japanese men are the heavy shoulders and bull-dog necks of the horses, which are seldom over fourteen hands high, have little speed, are wanting in hardiness, and trip violently even at a walk. Foreign horses have not yet been successfully acclimated. Hence the cavalry is the weakest arm of the service, and the full proportion for the colors has never yet been attained. Capt. Younghusband is all astray, however, when he says, "In all the history of the past, we have not yet been able to find an allusion to cavalry," etc. On the contrary, large bodies of mounted horsemen have taken part in the battles of the great civil wars in the middle ages and even down to the sixteenth century. Both picture and text in native literature are voluminous on this subject. Some interesting discussions concerning a possible war with China follow, the author urging that Japan is worthy of cultivation as an ally of England.

The Historic Episcopate. By Charles Woodruff Shields, D.D., LL.D. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1894.

English Orders: Whence Obtained. By the Rev. John Bainbridge Smith, M.A. London: Skeffington & Son. 1893.

IT is Dr. Shields's opinion that the chief lesson of the Chicago Parliament of Religions was the necessity of Christian harmony and unity in order to establish the supremacy of Christianity throughout the earth. "Let that lesson go unheeded, and the Christian religion may only have exposed its weakness in the face of its enemies." Dr. Shields's basis of

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"harmony and unity" is that of the Lambeth Conference: The Bible as the Ultimate Rule of Faith; The Apostles' and Nicene Creed; Baptism and the Lord's Supper; The Historical Episcopate. The most weight is put upon the last of the four corners of the house. The others would, of course, exclude the Roman Catholics and all the liberal sects, but that could not be helped, and Dr. Shields permits himself a hope that on either side these might approximate to the Lambeth quadrilateral. Exception is taken to Dr. Briggs's "union by confederation," and also to Dr. W. R. Huntington's "union by consolidation," *i. e.*, by absorption in the Episcopal Church. Indeed, Dr. Shields is very careful to make out that his scheme will not be in any special way advantageous or glorious for the Episcopalians.

His own method is that of "unification by organic growth." In his endeavor to explain it he is extremely vague, his predicates tending to identity with his subjects in a treadmill fashion—motion without advance. The nearest approach to anything practical is a kind of double ordination, at once episcopal and presbyterian. The whole discussion has a far-away look, and a blind side for the forces that are operating powerfully and destructively on at least two of the four Lambeth propositions, those relating to the Bible and the creeds.

Mr. Smith's little book 'English Orders: Whence Obtained' is an interesting and amusing comment on the course of Dr. Shields's 'Historic Episcopate.' It is a laborious attempt to trace the line of English Episcopal consecration from the earliest times. Its object is to show that the present archbishops and bishops of the English Church undoubtedly and all but exclusively trace their orders to a Roman source. But this conclusion is not meant to operate in favor of Roman jurisdiction, for it is shown that this was not completed until the time of King John. That it should reach its term in Henry VIII. was a bit of poetic justice that could hardly be excelled. Mr. Smith is at great pains to make out a valid consecration for Elizabeth's Bishop Parker, and it would be churlish at this remove to refuse him and others the comfort which his argument involves. It is interesting to notice that had the Restoration of 1660 been delayed a little longer, the Anglican episcopate would have come to an end, and oh the difference to Pusey and other sticklers for the apostolical succession! The last of the bishops of Charles I. died in 1670.

Mr. Smith's patient compilation does not stand merely for some idiosyncrasy of his own mind. It is an expression of a widespread and deep-rooted sense of the importance of the episcopate as something sacramental, magical. The disinclination of all those who have this sense to any such policy as that suggested by Dr. Shields would be immense, and hardly less that of the average Presbyterian, loyal to the traditions of his church. And some, we are convinced, will find it smacking more of ecclesiastical ambition and the fear of modern thought than of the desire of common work for moral and religious ends. Dr. Shields is undoubtedly right when he asserts a growing tendency to the ecclesiastical spirit. It rejoices his heart. Others will be differently affected.

Ricerche intorno alla Vita e alle Opere di Giambattista Cima. Conegliano, 1893.

THE Italians of to-day, like their Roman ancestors, may be described as a race with a passion for monuments. Having filled their cities, towns, and villages with statues of Victor Emmanuel and Garibaldi, those communities which have had a painter of renown among the number of their citizens are taking every opportunity to remind themselves and the universe of this fact. Last year Borgo San Sepolcro unveiled a monument to Pier dei Franceschi. Bassano is erecting one to Jacopo da Ponte; and Conegliano, not to be left behind, has put up a neat tablet in the arcade of its town-hall to the memory of Cima, and, what is more to the purpose, has published a monograph containing a great deal of fresh information about this strenuous painter. All praise is due to the compilers of this work, Signori Botteon and Aliprandi, for the diligence with which they have searched through their own archives, and for their abstaining from the dithyrambic language too frequently indulged in by Italian municipal critics.

The fresh documents prove conclusively that Giovanni Battista Cima was born and brought up at Conegliano, and not, as Messrs. Crowe and Cavalcaselle supposed, at Udine. It was doubtless this ill-founded supposition that led these critics to see Friulan crudities in works of such classic Venetian merit as the "Madonna and Saints" of Vicenza, or the "St. John" of Santa Maria dell'Orto at Venice. The date of Cima's birth can now be put no later than January or February, 1460, for his signature is found in a document of 1474, and, according to Venetian law, a male attained his majority at the age of fourteen. Cima, it appears, was the family name of the painter, and not, as Boschini imagined, a fatuous pun on his own conceit, nor, as Messrs. Crowe and Cavalcaselle fancied, a reference to Cima's putting mountain peaks (*cime*) in his backgrounds. The painter seems, however, to have been the first to use this form of the name, shortened from Cimatore (cloth-shearer), a name derived from the trade pursued by his ancestors for at least two generations.

Cima did not leave Conegliano definitely until 1489, although the picture at Vicenza of that date proves that he must have had his training and formed his style at Venice. From that date until 1516 we find him living in Venice, twice married, having had two sons by his first wife, and three sons and three daughters by the second. In 1516 he returned to Conegliano, settling down comfortably in the house left him by his father, a house still existing. He died intestate no later certainly than September 1, 1518, and probably a year earlier. He did not, therefore, die young, as Vasari says, although he seems to have been just at the height of his powers as a painter. In no other work do his qualities appear more attractive than in his last, the one in the Brera representing St. Peter enthroned. This picture is even more porcelain-like in the coolness of its tones, is even more transparent in the shadows and firmer in drawing, than the other works of this uniformly excellent master. What he would have done had he lived longer, whether he would, like Catena, have felt the kindling glow of Giorgione, are questions one cannot help asking.

The catalogue of Cima's works contained in this monograph is by far the most complete in existence. Unfortunately, however, it is of no great value, as it has not been compiled by carefully trained connoisseurs, and the authors have not so much as seen many of the pictures described. But, to compensate for this, we have detailed accounts of the history and vicissitudes of the more important works. Particularly interesting are the documents relating to the "Incredulity of Thomas," and its history down to the date of its acquisition by the National Gallery. Until 1818 the picture remained on the altar in the Church of San Francesco at Portogruaro, for which it was painted, but in that year it was sent to Venice to be restored. There it remained until 1833, having had in the meantime a narrow escape from destruction by flood, when it fell and lay in salt water for some hours. Scarcely returned to Portogruaro, the altar-piece began to show signs of peeling off, and in 1852 it was again sent to be retored. This proved useless, as it immediately began to peel off again. In 1861 Sir Charles Eastlake saw it and offered forty thousand francs for it, but the question of proprietorship prevented its sale. It was finally bought for the National Gallery—of course not for the British Museum, as the authors say—by Mr. Boxall, for £1,800, and "in the British Museum they now show visitors what English gold could do to rob Italy of so precious an art treasure."

This monograph cannot be regarded as a final work upon Cima. It makes no attempt to recreate his artistic personality, nor does it try to connect him with the art movement of his time, though it is in this connection that Cima is particularly interesting. Why it is that Sebastiano del Piombo signed himself as a "pupil of Giovanni Bellini" on a picture which betrays no influence but Cima's, is a problem that still remains to be solved. Morelli's supposition that Cima must have been for some time the foreman of Bellini's workshop seems a likely one, but it needs corroboration. Cima's influence on such a fascinating artist as Catena, and on one so sympathetic as Lotto, was certainly considerable, and if all such points were carefully worked out, we should probably find that Cima was more than a mere painter of severe Madonnas and ascetic saints. But the monograph of Don Vincenzo Botteon and Doctor Aliprandi has at least the merit of making an elaborate study of Cima much more fruitful than it could have been hitherto.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Baarnhielm, Miss E. W. The Icicle, and Other Poems. Glen Ridge, N. J.: The Author.
Bramantip, Bocardo. The Abraham Lincoln Myth: An Essay in "Higher Criticism." Mascot Publishing Co. 25 cents.
Bruce, Wallace. Panorama of the Hudson. New York: Bryant Literary Union. $1.
Butler, G. P. School English. American Book Co. 75 cents.
Butler, W. A. Mrs. Limber's Raffle. New ed. Appletons. 75 cents.
Caine, Hall. The Manxman. Appletons. $1.50.
Clifford, Mrs. W. K. A Wild Proxy. Cassell. 50 cents.
Crookes, Prof. William. Select Methods in Chemical Analysis. 3d ed., rewritten and enlarged. Longmans, Green & Co. $8.
Dale, Darley. Lottie's Wooing. Cassell. 50 cents.
Doyle, A. C. Micah Clarke. Harpers. $1.75.
Doyle, A. C. Micah Clarke. [School Edition.] Longmans, Green & Co. 50 cents.
Fabre, Ferdinand. Mon Ami Gaffarot. Paris: Armand Colin & Cie.
Fiske, John. A History of the United States for Schools. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.
Fowler, J. K. Recollections of Old Country Life. Longmans, Green & Co. $3.
France, Anatole. Le Luys Rouge. Paris: Calmann Lévy.
Frankland, Prof. and Mrs. Percy. Micro-Organisms in Water. Longmans, Green & Co. $5.
Freeman, Prof. E. A. The History of Sicily from the Earliest Times. Vol. IV. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan.
Gladden, Rev. Washington. The Church and the Kingdom. F. H. Revell Co. 50 cents.
Graduate Courses: A Handbook for Graduate Students Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard Graduate Club. 15 cents.
Heyse, Paul. A Divided Heart. Brentanos. $1.25.
Hime, Lieut.-Col. H. W. L. The Outlines of Quaternions. Longmans, Green & Co. $3.
Holmes, Mary J. The House of Five Gables. M. J. Ivers & Co. 25 cents.
Hope, Anthony. A Change of Air. Henry Holt & Co. 75 cents.
Hopkins, R. C. Roses and Thistles. San Francisco: William Doxey. $2.
Hornung, E. W. The Unbidden Guest. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.
Houston, Prof. E. J. A Dictionary of Electrical Words, Terms and Phrases. 3d ed. W. J. Johnston Co. $5.
Howells, W. D. The Garroters: A Farce. Harpers. 50 cents.
Howland, Marie. Papa's Own Girl. Lovell, Coryell & Co. 50 cents.
Hubbard, Elbert. No Enemy (but Himself). Putnams. $1.50.

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Hudson, Prof. W. H. An Introduction to the Philosophy of Herbert Spencer. Appletons. $1.25.
Hufford, Mrs. Lois G. Selections from Ruskin. Boston: Ginn & Co. $1.10.
Jókai, Maurus. Eyes Like the Sea. Putnams $1.
Jókai, Maurus. Timar's Two Worlds. Appletons. $1.
Jacobi, Dr. Mary Putnam. Found and Lost. Putnams. 50 cents.
King, Dr. C. R. The Life and Correspondence of Rufus King. Vol. I. Putnams. $5.
Méneval, Baron Claude-François de. Memoirs Illustrating the History of Napoleon I., from 1802 to 1815. Vols. II, III. Appletons. $2 each.
Meyer, Rev. F. B. The Bells of Is. F. H. Revell Co. 75 cents.
Mitchell, F. E. The Secret of Success. Success Publishing Co.
Monkhouse, Allan. Books and Plays. London: Mathews & Lane; Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $1.50.
Moore, F. F. "I Forbid the Banns." Cassell. 50 cents.
Morris, William, and Magnússon, Eiríkr. The Heimskringla. Vol II. [The Saga Library.] London: Bernard Quaritch.
Müller, C. C. Tables for the Writing of Exercises in the Study of Harmony. Second Series. W. A. Pond & Co.
Ponslevi, Perpetuo. Magdalena. Rand, McNally & Co.
Prince, J. T. Arithmetic by Grades. 8 Books. Teachers' Manual for Using. Boston: Ginn & Co.
Rand, E. L., and Redfield, J. H. Flora of Mt. Desert Island, Maine. Cambridge: John Wilson & Son.
Rathbone, St. George. The Bachelor of the Midway. Mascot Publishing Co. 50 cents.
Richards, Mrs. Laura E. Narcissa. Boston: Estes & Lauriat. 50 cents.
Richter, Eugene. Pictures of the Future. New York: Optimus Printing Co. 50 cents.
Simpson, F. M. Drawing-Room Duologues. London: T. Fisher Unwin.
Smith, Constance. A Cumberer of the Ground. Harpers. 50 cents.
Smith, Mrs. Hannah W. The Science of Motherhood. F. H. Revell Co. 35 cents.
Smith, W. P. Climbing in the British Isles. I.—England. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.25.
Spalding, F. P. A Text-Book on Roads and Pavements. John Wiley & Sons. $2.
Spofford, Harriet P. A Scarlet Poppy, and Other Stories. Harpers. $1.25.
Spurgeon, Rev. C. H. The Art of Illustration. W. B. Ketcham. $1.
St. Felix, Marie. Two Bad Brown Eyes. The Merriam Co. 50 cents.
Streamer, Volney. What Makes a Friend? In Friendship's Name. Volwalt Publishing Co. Each $1.25.
Sturgis, Julian. A Book of Song. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.75.
The Grouse. [Fur and Feather Series.] Longmans, Green & Co.

SEPTEMBER

EDUCATIONAL REVIEW.

ARTICLES.—Inception of an American State School System, Andrew S. Draper; The Dogma of Formal Discipline, B. A. Hinsdale; Ethical Contents of Children's Minds, F. W. Osborn; The Modern Side in the College, Thomas B. Bronson; City School Administration, Albert P. Marble; Study of Education at the University of California, Elmer E. Brown.
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